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HARTFORD, CONN., 1862.

BONAPARTE CROSSING THE ALPS.

THE

EASTERN,

OR

OLD WORLD;

EMBRACING

ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY

BY

HENRY HOWARD BROWNELL, A. M.

VOL. II.

FRANCE, WITH LATE REVOLUTIONS; ENGLAND, WITH THE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF AUSTRALIA; SWEDEN AND NORWAY; DENMARK; THE NETHERLANDS; SWITZERLAND; PORTUGAL; ITALY;

AND

A STATISTICAL APPENDIX; EMBRACING A DESCRIPTION, STATISTICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL, OF THE COUNTRIES OF EUROPE, ASIA, AND AFRICA, COMPILED FROM THE LATEST AUTHORITIES.

WITH

NUMEROUS BEAUTIFUL ILLUSTRATIONS,

DRAWN AND COLORED AFTER NATURE,

EMBRACING PORTRAITS, SCENERY, CURIOSITIES, CITIES, PUBLIC EDIFICES, ETC., ETC.

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FRANCE.

CHAPTER I.

THE EARLY INHABITANTS OF FRANCE.—THE ROMANS; THE FRANKS.—THE MEROVINGIAN AND CARLOVINGIAN DYNASTIES.

FRANCE, the ancient Gaul, which has long been one of the most refined and powerful nations on earth, was originally inhabited by an uncivilized race, which probably emigrated from Germany. They lived in the usual primitive manner, by hunting and fishing, and dwelt in miserable huts of wood or clay. Their religious rites, like those of the Britons, were Druidical, and human sacrifices were not unfrequent.

About sixty years before Christ, Julius Cæsar, in his wonderful career of western conquest, subdued these barbarous tribes, and introduced Roman governors and colonists. The newly-acquired region became of considerable commercial importance, and many splendid remains of Roman architecture attest its wealth and civilization. Paris was, at that day, a considerable city, and Marseilles (Massilia) was even then a flourishing sea-port.

The country was held by its conquerors about as long as their other western possessions. In the beginning of the fifth century, a tribe of Germans, called Franks (Freemen), led by their king, Pharamond, established themselves in the northern part of France. Among the kings of this "Merovingian" dynasty, the name of Clovis, who reigned from 481 to 511, is most distinguished. He became converted to Christianity about the middle of his reign, and introduced the new religion into his dominions, then widely extended by force and policy. After a reign of thirty years, passed mostly in war and violence, he expired, leaving to his successors a monarchy of which

he may be considered the founder. The celebrated Salic Law, an article of which excluded females from the throne of France, originated with this monarch.

The next important name in the history of this dynasty is that of Dagobert, who in 628 succeeded, with his brother, to the throne, and, soon afterwards, by the murder of the latter, gained entire possession of the sovereignty. Despite his crimes, the kingdom, through his ability and justice, increased greatly in wealth and power. He died in 638, and for a century his successors held a merely nominal royalty, the true power being usurped by their officers, the "mayors of the palace." Of these, the most remarkable was Charles Martel, who, in 714, inherited the authority of his father Pepin. The genius and valour of this prince saved Southern Europe from the destruction which seemed impending over her. A vast body of Saracens, having overrun Spain, marched into France, and threatened its entire conquest. Charles, in a terrible battle, near Tours, which lasted for seven days, utterly defeated them, and three hundred thousand of their number are said (probably with exaggeration) to have left their bones in France. This battle, like that of Marathon, where the Persian hordes were repelled from overwhelming a more civilized race, has been considered as one of those contests most decisive of the fate of human advancement. In 737, he relinquished the farce of appointing a nominal sovereign, and openly mounted the throne, which he had long possessed in reality. His son Pepin, after his death in 741, assumed the royal title, and the Merovingian line (named from Meroveus) was extinguished by the Carlovingian (named from Charles, the son of Pepin). During the reign of Pepin, (called the Little,) France made great advances in wealth and political importance, and the fame of her sovereign extended into the distant regions of the East. His renown, however, was destined to be overshadowed by that of his son, the famous Charlemagne (Charles the Great), who on his death, in 768, ascended the throne.

This renowned monarch was of gigantic stature, and his ambition was fully sustained by his energy and talent. Though fond of learning, and a liberal patron of religion, literature, and science, he was unable to write—a deficiency common in that barbarous age. Conquest was his chief passion, and his political sagacity enabled him to retain firmly the territories acquired by his arms. In 777, returning from an expedition into Spain, he met with a signal mis-

fortune. The rear of his army, while defiling through the narrow pass of Roncesvalles, in the Pyrenees, was attacked by the mountaineers, and cut off, almost to a man. His nephew, the renowned Roland, fell, fighting valiantly, and his bravest peers died with him. No incident in warfare has been oftener celebrated in the ballads, songs, and other primitive records of the two nations.

By the energy of Charlemagne, the Northmen or Normans, who had long harassed the shores of Southern Europe, were repelled, and the coasts were protected by a powerful navy. His empire was continually enlarged, until it extended over France, Italy, Germany, most of Central Europe, and a large part of Spain. In the year 800, he received from the Pope, at Rome, with the most solemn ceremonies, the title of "Emperor of the West." His fame, like that of his father, extended to the remotest regions of the East, and he maintained a friendly intercourse with the great Caliph Haroun al Raschid. His capital was in the city of Aix, where his time was principally passed, and where, in 813, he resigned the throne of his vast dominions to his son Louis. He died early in the following year, in the seventy-second year of his age, and the forty-fourth of his reign.

Louis, called the "Good-natured," possessed little of his talents. He died in 840, after a reign of twenty years, embittered by the rebellious conduct of his sons. The great empire, cemented by the valour and genius of his father, was rapidly dismembered. After much warfare and contention among the undutiful heirs, Charles, called the Bald, took France; Lothaire, Italy; and Louis, Germany. The former died in 877, and was succeeded by his son, under the title of Louis II.

The political condition of France, and much of the empire, was strictly feudal; lands being held of the king by his nobles, on a military tenure, and tilled by the enslaved native inhabitants or serfs. The [illegible] powerful vassals were the Twelve Peers of France, who, like all great nobles of the time, exercised an almost independent sovereignty within their own limits.

Louis II. died after a reign of two years, and his kingdom was again dismembered; Bozon, a powerful noble, seizing the kingdom of Provence, and the remainder being divided between his children, Louis III. and Carloman. They died, after a brief reign, and in 884 the crown was bestowed by the leading nobles and clergy on Charles the Fat, son of Louis of Germany. Nearly the whole empire of

Charlemagne was thus rēunited under his descendant; but in vain. The Normans had again commenced their fierce incursions, and in 884 beleaguered Paris itself, which, however, successfully resisted a siege of several years. The incapacity of Charles was so gross, that in 888, by common consent, his authority was disowned, and Count Eudes, a valiant lord, was chosen in his place. At his death in 898, Charles (called the Simple), a son of Louis II., and who had already been proclaimed by the bishops and nobles, was acknowledged king.

In the the year 911, Rollo, a brave and politic leader of the Normans, gained such advantages, that Charles was compelled to surrender to him the large and fertile province still called Normandy. This infusion of a new and vigorous race proved of the greatest advantage to the French nation and to Europe. The Normans, though still distinguished above all other nations by their valour and military skill, cultivated refinement and policy; and their province soon became highly prosperous, powerful, and, for that age, intellectual and refined. Charles was deposed on account of his incapacity, and Raoul, who succeeded him, died in 935.

Through the influence of Hugh the Fair, the nephew of Eudes, and for many years the real ruler of the kingdom, Louis IV., a son of Charles, and English by education, was placed upon the throne. Being a man of ability, he soon refused to submit to the dictation of Hugh, and the latter, assisted by the duke of Normandy, waged war against him. He died in 954, and was succeeded by his son Lothaire.

In the course of the latter's reign, Otho, emperor of Germany, invaded France with a large army; but was unable to take the capital, which was strongly fortified by Hugh Capet, son of Hugh the Fair, and Count of Paris. Lothaire died in 987, and his son Louis V., to whom Capet was guardian, followed him in a few months. With him ended the Carlovingian dynasty, under which, owing to a want of capacity and courage, the limits of the kingdom had been reduced to a comparatively small territory. During this period the French had acquired their present name (from the Franks) and the foundation of their present language, which is based upon a mixture of the Frank and Latin tongues.

CHAPTER II.

THE HOUSE OF CAPET.

HUGH CAPET, finding no one in a condition to oppose him, in 987, seized upon the throne. His devotion and his gifts secured the support of the clergy, the most influential part of the community; but he experienced much difficulty from the opposition of the powerful and factious nobles of his time. These petty tyrants exercised a complete despotism within the limits of their own territories, and were almost continually engaged in a savage and predatory warfare with each other. In this "iron age," as it is justly termed, the little learning extant was confined to the priests. Gerbert, the king's secretary, was, indeed, distinguished for his attainments, and afterwards held the popedom, under the title of Sylvester II.

Robert (the Pious) succeeded his father Hugh, in 996. His reign was distinguished by a singular delusion. Like certain fanatics of our own time, mankind generally supposed the world to be coming to an end; and the year 1000 or 1001 was fixed upon as the date of its termination. From neglect in cultivating the land, a famine nearly ensued. The church now began to evince the extent of its power. Robert had refused to separate from his wife Bertha, who was his distant relation. The Pope, to enforce obedience, excommunicated him, laid the kingdom under an interdict, and finally compelled him to submit to a separation. Persecutions for heresy were also common, even at this early age, and the cruel custom of burning heretics was often practised. Robert died in 1031, after a reign of thirty-four years, passed chiefly in the observance of the bigoted and unenlightened rites of the religion of his day.

His son Henry I. succeeded him, being supported by the powerful duke of Normandy, called Robert the Devil. He married Anne, a princess of Russia, and reigned in rather an insignificant way, until his death in 1060. During this time Robert had died on a pilgrimage in Palestine, and his son William (afterwards the celebrated "Conqueror" of England) had, though very young, ably and successfully maintained his claim to the dukedom.

The remarkable institution and code of "Chivalry" was now founded, and flourished greatly from this time. It was originally an association for the defence of the weak, for deference and respect to age and to the fair, and for performing feats of knightly gallantry. Though some of these objects were but partially secured, (the "knights" finally becoming great oppressors and ravishers themselves,) it yet imparted a more generous tone to the savage warfare of the times, and hastened the march of civilization.

Philip, at the age of seven, succeeded his father, under the guardianship of the able and virtuous Baldwin, earl of Flanders. On assuming the government, at the age of fourteen, his vices and incapacity soon became apparent. Events of the greatest importance to Europe occurred during his reign. William of Normandy, his nominal vassal, conquered the kingdom of England, and became far more powerful and independent than his sovereign who took the mean satisfaction of assisting and abetting his revolted sons. Another body of Normans, headed by Robert Guiscard, a descendant of Rollo, seized the kingdom of Sicily from the Saracens, and gained an extensive footing in Italy. A still more important enterprise was the first crusade, which in the last of the eleventh century, distracted all Europe, and especially allured and carried away the excitable French.

Pilgrimages to the Holy Land had long been practised, and under the humane and enlightened rule of the Saracens, the multitudes who resorted to the tomb of Christ, at Jerusalem, were tolerated and protected. But in 1094, when the fierce and bigoted Turks included the Holy City in their conquests, the pious devotees who resorted to the Holy Sepulchre, met with great indignity and cruelty; and a spirit of revenge was awakened throughout Christian Europe. Peter the Hermit, who had himself witnessed the atrocities of the infidels, travelled from city to city, and exhorted princes and people to rescue the Sepulchre of their Saviour from the thraldom of Mahomet. A vast religious enthusiasm was thus aroused. The knights were eager for a new field of distinction; the people were zealous to gain a remission of their sins, as promised by the Pope; and the cross was assumed throughout France with the greatest alacrity.

A vast number of feeble and unwarlike pilgrims first commenced the expedition over land; but nearly all perished on the way from exposure, fatigue, and attack by the nations through which they

passed. To this succeeded a great and well-appointed armament of three hundred thousand men, commanded by Godfrey of Bouillon, Robert of Flanders, Robert of Normandy, son of the Conqueror, Hugh, the king's brother, and other lords and nobles of high renown. In three great divisions, they arrived in the East, where private ambition and private conquests soon allured many of the leaders from the sanctified undertaking in which they had embarked. A portion, under Baldwin and the two Roberts, at length, in 1099, arrived under the walls of Jerusalem, which they took by storm, after a fierce resistance. Godfrey was chosen king of Jerusalem, and assumed a crown of thorns, with the title of "Defender of the Holy Sepulchre." The greater part of the Crusaders then returned. leaving for the defence of their conquest two associations of military monks—the Knights Templars, and the Knights Hospitallers, or Knights of St. John. The work, however, was not completed. The Mahometans finally regained possession of the Holy City; and though seven crusades were afterwards sent against them, retained it, as they continue to do to this day.

Meanwhile, the king, abandoned to sensuality, relinquished the cares of government to his son Louis, a prince of just intentions and amiable temper. He died in 1108, after a useless and feeble reign of fifty years, leaving to his heirs the kingdom of France, hardly larger than some of its present departments.

Under his son Louis VI. (called the Fat) it began, however, to increase in territory, wealth, and importance. Much of this improvement was due to the protection extended over artisans and merchants, who were granted charters for mutual defence and municipal government. As these classes increased in wealth, their taxes enriched the royal treasury. The arts and sciences improved; and commerce, secure from the depredations of the nobility, flourished to an extent befor[illegible]known. Such was the foundation of those powerful civic corpo[illegible]ns which afterwards exercised such influence in the government of the nation.

Louis was soon engaged in war with his powerful vassal Henry I. of England; and, at the instigation of the latter, the emperor of Germany also commenced hostilities against France. It was found necessary to raise the *oriflamme*, or sacred national banner, around which a large army instantly rallied, and compelled the invader to retreat. In 1137 the king died, deeply lamented by the subjects whom he had governed justly, and whose condition he had greatly improved.

During his reign, literature, such as it was, made considerable progress, and the wandering Troubadours or Provençal minstrels, diffused a general taste for song and poetry. The celebrated Abelard gave lessons in philosophy, and was listened to by attentive crowds.

Louis VII., who succeeded his father, was a prince of strong feelings, but moderate abilities. While engaged in war with Thibault of Champagne, his powerful and rebellious vassal, a calamitous incident occurred, which wrought strongly on his imagination and conscience The church of Vitry, in which great numbers had taken refuge from his assault, was set on fire, and thirteen hundred of the unfortunate citizens perished in the flames. Overcome with remorse, the king vowed a pilgrimage to Jerusalem; which, by the zeal and eloquence of Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux, was converted into another crusade. An expedition of two hundred and fifty thousand men, which he led into Palestine, failed to accomplish the undertaking; and of this great multitude, very few ever regained their native country. The king returned in disgrace, and was met by the universal reproaches of his subjects.

His wife Eleanor, whom he divorced, immediately married the duke of Normandy, (afterwards Henry II. of England,) and her large continental possessions were thus added to the crown of England. After a reign of forty-seven years, much of which was passed in unimportant wars with England, the king died, in 1180 and was succeeded by his son Philip II.

This prince, afterwards called Philip Augustus, was the ablest monarch who had ruled the French since the days of Charlemagne. He maintained a standing army, and gradually changed the government from an almost nominal sovereignty into an absolute monarchy. The city of Paris was greatly enlarged and improved during his reign, and was surrounded by a strong wall. Commerce was encouraged and facilitated. He was a patron of letters, and encouraged the writers of romances and of marvellous tales, which then, as at our own day, constituted the most popular department of literature.

The policy of Philip was of rather a low and tortuous character. He gratified his jealousy of Henry II. by supporting his sons in their unnatural rebellion. Richard, the eldest, assumed the crown on the death of his father, in 1189, and entered into an agreement with Philip for a fresh crusade. After much delay, the two monarchs, mutually jealous of each other, sat down before the strong

PETER THE HERMIT,

PRAYING FOR THE SUCCESS OF THE CRUSADERS

"I MEAN not to class Peter the Hermit among great men; but certainly he deserves the character of one of the most extraordinary men that Europe ever produced, if it were but for the circumstance of having convulsed a world—led one continent to combat to extermination against another, and yet left historians in doubt whether he was madman or prophet, fool or politician."—HISTORY OF CHIVALRY AND THE CRUSADES

DEPARTURE OF THE FIRST CRUSADE,

LED BY PETER THE HERMIT AND WALTER THE PENNILESS

"THE Counts Palatine were already full of the desire to undertake this journey, and the knights of an inferior order soon felt the same zeal. The poor themselves soon caught the flame so ardently, that no one paused to think of the smallness of his wealth, but each set about selling his property — — — —Who shall tell the children and the infirm that, animated by the same spirit hastened to the war? Who shall count the old men and the young maids who hurried forward to the fight?—not with the hope of aiding, but for the crown of martyrdom to be won amid the swords of the infidels. — — — The poor harnessing their oxen to two-wheeled carts, in which they placed their scanty provisions and their young children; and proceeding onward, while the babes, at each town or castle that they saw, demanded eagerly whether that was Jerusalem."—DESCRIPTION OF THE FIRST CRUSADE, BY AN EYE-WITNESS

city of Acre, the key of the East. In storming this place and in his encounters with Saladin, the chivalric sultan of Egypt, Richard acquired, by his desperate valour, the name of Cœur de Lion, by which he has ever since been distinguished. Philip soon took his departure for France, taking a solemn oath that he would commit no hostilities in the absence of Richard—an oath from which he treacherously but vainly besought the Pope to release him. Nevertheless, learning that Richard was captive in Germany, he made an attack upon his Norman possessions.

In the fourth crusade, which succeeded, Philip refused to proceed to the Holy Land in person; but levied taxes to forward the enterprise. Great numbers of his subjects embarked in the new expedition, which was headed by Baldwin, count of Flanders. Joining their forces with those of Venice, under Dandalo, the blind and venerable doge they were diverted from their purpose by a new enterprise, the conquest of the Greek empire. Constantinople was taken, and Baldwin, in 1204, being chosen emperor, founded a new dynasty in the East.

John, who succeeded Richard in 1199, murdered his nephew Arthur, the lineal heir to the throne, whose cause had been espoused by Philip. The French king, pleased with the opportunity, summoned John, as his vassal, to trial for this crime; and on his refusal to attend, declared his fief of Normandy forfeited. The weak and wicked monarch could oppose no effectual resistance. Normandy reverted to the crown of France, and his provinces of Maine, Anjou, and Touraine were speedily wrung from him by conquest. A large army was also prepared, at the request of the Pope, for the invasion and conquest of England; but on the submission of John, the pontiff issued his commands for its disbandment, greatly to the mortification of the French monarch, who easily perceived himself the tool of this domineering and unscrupulous churchman.

Philip, thus far highly successful in his ambitious schemes, was next exposed to the attack of a formidable confederacy. England, Flanders, and Germany were united against him, and with an army of fifty thousand men, he encountered the confederates, of an overwhelming force, at Bouvines, on the 27th August, 1214. After a most desperate battle, in which Philip was dragged from his horse, and exposed to the greatest danger, he won a complete victory. It seems to have been customary for ecclesiastics to engage in warfare, and on this occasion, the warlike bishop of Beauvais, armed with an iron mace, or club, did great execution among the enemy.

A severe persecution, occasionally afterwards renewed, was carried on against the Albigenses, a sect of Christians in Languedoc, and the most atrocious cruelties were committed. An unsuccessful enterprise, under Prince Louis, to gain the throne of England, and an equally futile crusade, despatched into Egypt, were the last important movements under the reign of Philip. He died in 1223, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and the fourth of a reign in which the strength and territory of France had been extraordinarily increased.

Louis VIII., who ascended the throne on the death of his father, was thirty-six years of age, and feeble both in mind and body. During his brief reign of three years, he waged war with Henry III. of England, and carried on a bitter persecution against the Albigenses. While engaged in the latter, he died in 1226, of a fever which carried off great numbers of his soldiers.

His queen, Blanche, who became regent and guardian of her son, Louis IX., was a woman of great energy and kindly disposition, though rash and arbitrary. She maintained the rights of the throne until it was occupied by the king, at his majority. This monarch, called from his piety St. Louis, was of a remarkably just and religious disposition, though enslaved by the bigotry of his times. In the year 1244, while in a trance, he received, as he imagined, a divine command to assume the cross. Four years afterwards he sailed to Egypt with a gallant armament, seized the town of Damietta, and advanced towards Cairo. The expedition was, however, defeated by an inundation of the Nile; his troops perished of pestilence; and in April, 1250, he was compelled to surrender himself and the remains of his army as prisoners to the sultan of Egypt. He finally regained his liberty by payment of an immense ransom, and, after an absence of four years, returned to France. Here he applied himself to the more truly religious task of redressing abuses and administering equal justice to his subjects. The "Parliament of Paris," a grand council of all the principal persons in the kingdom, was now constituted as a "High Court of Appeals."

In July, 1270, the king, attended by many of his nobles, had the folly to embark in another crusade; and first effected a landing in Africa, enthusiastically hoping to convert the infidel king of Tunis. Pestilence, however, caused by the excessive heat, broke out in his camp, and this generous, but misdirected monarch fell a victim to it, after a virtuous, though bigoted reign of forty-four years.

His son Philip III. (surnamed the Bold) was a prince of excellent

disposition, but of very inferior abilities. His barber, or physician, Pierre le Brosse, had gained almost complete influence over his mind, and even tried to effect, by false accusations, the ruin of the queen. His falsehoods and treasonable designs being detected, however, he was finally condemned and executed.

The French invaders had for a considerable time kept possession of Sicily, and exercised much cruelty upon the inhabitants. A most terrible conspiracy was organized for their destruction. The plot, although known to numbers, was kept secret for years, and the intended victims were perfectly unsuspicious. At length, on Easter-day, 1282, at the tolling of the vesper-bell, the inhabitants rose throughout the island, attacked their enemies by surprise, and slew them all, with a single exception.

An expedition which Philip undertook for the conquest of Arragon, was disconcerted by the loss of his fleet, which was destroyed or captured by Andrew Doria, the great Genoese admiral; and shortly after, in 1285, the king expired, after a reign of fifteen years, during which the French nation had enjoyed an unusual amount of happiness and prosperity.

His son Philip IV., surnamed the Fair, next ascended the throne. Some of the most barbarous and perfidious acts on record soon disgraced his reign. The new sovereign was by no means deficient in ability, especially in craft and cunning; but he was avaricious, unprincipled, and outrageously cruel. He was soon engaged in war with England, and, by treachery, gained some advantages. He entrapped the earl of Flanders by an invitation, imprisoned him at Paris, and despatched a force of fifty thousand men against his territories. These, however, met with such a terrible defeat at the hands of the Flemish citizens, that, after the battle, four thousand golden spurs, the badges of knighthood, were collected on the field. The king, however, was now in alliance with Edward of England, who had married his sister Margaret, and was enabled to turn his resources against them, and in turn to gain the advantage.

Covetous of the wealth of their order, he next instituted a most atrocious persecution against the Knights Templars. Finding that he was unable legally to destroy the institution, he gave orders for the arbitrary arrest of all its members who were in the kingdom. Their property was confiscated, and many of them were subjected to the most cruel tortures, to extort a confession of pretended crimes. Jacques de Molay, the Grand Master, who hastened from Cyprus to

defend the reputation of his Order, was, after a villanous mockery of trial, burned alive, by especial order of the king. The Pope, who had at first protested against these atrocities, readily connived at them, on receiving a share of the spoils.

Although, by oppressive taxes, the king had completely alienated his people, yet by way of depressing the nobility, he admitted them to a voice in the general assembly; and the States General were afterwards composed of the clergy, the nobility, and the deputies of the people.

Philip died in 1314, from a fall received while hunting, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and the twenty-ninth of his reign.

He was succeeded by his eldest son, Louis X., called Hutin (the Peevish), who left the control of government to his uncle, Charles of Valois. He died after a reign of nineteen months, chiefly remarkable for the emancipation of the serfs, whom he compelled to purchase their freedom, to replenish his exhausted treasury.

His brother, Philip V., came to the throne in 1316, and after an unimportant reign of six years, was succeeded by his younger brother, Charles IV., at whose death, in 1328, the crown, in default of male heirs, passed to Philip, son of Charles of Valois. The direct line of Capet thus came to an end, after retaining the throne for more than three centuries.

CHAPTER III.

THE HOUSE OF VALOIS.

PHILIP VI., surnamed (why, it would be hard to say) the Fortunate, received the crown at the age of thirty-four, and was soon called upon to defend it from the impudent and unreasonable claims advanced by Edward III., king of England. Although the pretensions of Edward, derived from his mother, a daughter of Philip IV., were rendered null by the Salic law, and even if that law were non-existent, were inferior to those of another branch, yet he obstinately persisted in assuming the title and arms of the king of France

—a piece of folly which the sovereigns of England, until very recently, have all imitated.

Edward and his son, the famous Black Prince, with a large army, landed in France. On the 23d of August, 1346, was fought the battle of Crecy (Cressy), in which the superiority of the English archers secured them a complete and terrible victory. More than thirty thousand of the French perished in this disastrous conflict, including a vast number of knights, nobles, and all the flower of French chivalry. Edward immediately laid siege to Calais; and the unfortunate inhabitants, after bravely resisting for more than a year, were reduced to the greatest suffering from famine. The town was finally compelled to surrender, and the lives of the citizens were saved by the heroic conduct of Eustace de St. Pierre, who, with five of his fellow-burgesses, offered their lives as a ransom for the rest. They were spared, with much reluctance, at the intercession of Philippa, Edward's queen. At length, after France had been terribly devastated, and in parts almost depopulated, a peace was concluded.

Soon afterwards, in 1350, Philip died, in the fifty-seventh year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. During his time, the province of Dauphiny had been ceded to the French territories, in consideration that the king's son should always bear the title of the "dauphin." John, his eldest son, at the age of forty, ascended the throne, and the war with England was soon revived. Prince Edward, who had led a small army from Gascony, was ravaging the country, and John with an immensely superior force, attacked him at Poictiers. But the English position was strongly fortified; a sudden panic seized the French ranks; and the contest resulted in a victory for the English, as brilliant, though less bloody, than that of Crecy. The king and his son Philip, being taken prisoners, were treated by the victor with the utmost respect and courtesy, and were carried to London.

The condition of France, left without a ruler, was now wretched in the extreme. The nobles, attempting to reduce the people again to a condition of serfdom, committed the most atrocious cruelties; and the peasantry, driven to desperation, commenced a furious attack on their oppressors. The castles of the nobility, in many places, were pillaged, and their inmates ravished and massacred. This *Jacquerie*, as it was called, from Jacques Bon Homme, (Jack Goodfellow, a favourite leader,) became so formidable that all parties,

English and French, united to put it down, and it was finally suppressed, with immense slaughter.

The dauphin, who, during the captivity of his father, held the regency, was unable to procure the extortionate sums which were demanded for his ransom; and King Edward, with a large army, marched to the very walls of Paris. A terrible storm of thunder and lightning, however, had such an effect upon his superstitious mind, that he consented to a peace, renouncing his pretensions, and agreeing to release King John on the payment of certain stipulated sums. John was set free, and returned to his own country, but found himself unable, from the poverty of the nation, to complete his engagements. Therefore, declaring that if good faith were banished from every other place, it should at least be respected in the words of a king, he returned in the most honourable manner to his captivity, and died a prisoner in England, April 8th, 1364. He had reigned fourteen years, marked by bravery, honour, and misfortune.

Charles V., called the Wise, was already distinguished for his abilities and intellectual accomplishments. He was fond of the company of literary men, among whom the celebrated Petrarch conversed with him, and admired his taste and learning. The royal library, which in his father's day had consisted of twenty volumes, he increased to nine hundred. It is, at present, the largest in the world, containing more than a million of volumes. Several works of great interest were written during his reign, of which the chronicles of Froissart are the most important. By order of the king, many of the Greek and Latin classics were translated into French, indifferently enough, it is true. The university of Paris was already thronged with students from almost every nation of Europe.

His political abilities were also great. He regained the province of Guienne from the English, his brave Constable, Du Guesclin, carrying all before him. This renowned knight died while besieging a certain castle; but so great was the respect felt for him even by his enemies, that in accordance to agreement, the fortress surrendered, and the keys were solemnly laid upon his bier by the governor.

Charles the Bad, king of Navarre, had long disturbed the French nation by his treachery and enmity; and finally filled the measure of his crimes by administering a slow poison to Charles, his relative and fellow-sovereign. Under the influence of this cruel potion, he lingered for a time, and finally expired in 1380, at the age of forty-four, having reigned sixteen years.

Charles VI. (the "Well Beloved"), at the age of thirteen, came to the throne, the duke of Anjou being appointed regent. The latter, a selfish and ambitious man, took advantage of his power to attempt the gaining a kingdom of his own. Seizing the public treasure, and assembling a large army, he marched into Italy, where Joanna of Naples had bequeathed to him her possessions. His force was, however, almost entirely cut off, and he survived but a short time the destruction of his ambitious hopes.

The duke of Burgundy succeeded to the regency, and in 1386 planned a formidable invasion of England. Nine hundred vessels were prepared, but the expedition was dispersed by a storm, and rendered incapable of effecting its object. The king, who, on his coming of age, in 1388, assumed the government, gave promise, by his wise and equitable measures, of an excellent reign. Unfortunately, exposure to the sun brought on a furious attack of insanity; and when he had partially recovered, a terrible accident which befell several of his noble companions occasioned a renewal of his disorder. For thirty years, during which this unhappy monarch reigned nominally, he had only occasional glimpses of reason, and was treated with brutal neglect by his queen, Isabella of Bavaria, who kept possession of his revenues.

In the latter part of his reign, Henry V. of England, seeing the defenceless state of the kingdom, again advanced the absurd claim of Edward III., and invaded France with a large army. After ravaging the country far and near, he encountered the French, of greatly superior force, near Agincourt, on the 26th of October, 1415. The latter, attacked upon disadvantageous ground, and exposed to the galling fire of the English archery, were entirely defeated, and great numbers of them perished.

Henry, who, on account of the mortality from disease in his army, had been compelled to return to England, soon recommenced the war, and in a short time gained possession of all Normandy. Overawing the feeble opposition of the French nobles, he was declared regent of the kingdom, and successor to the crown; the imbecile king being made to assent publicly to this arrangement. Henry, having been crowned at Paris, died soon afterwards, leaving the duke of Bedford regent of France. The unhappy king himself expired in 1422, at the age of fifty-five, after a reign of forty-two years, mostly passed in insanity.

During his reign, a curious instance of the trial by ordeal occurred.

A man named Aubry had been murdered by his enemy, Robert Macaire, and the corpse had been buried in the forest of Bondi. The dog of the murdered man, who had witnessed the crime, brought a friend of his master, and showed him the body. Meeting Macaire, he attacked him furiously, and by continually exhibiting his enmity, awakened suspicion. The murderer avowed his innocence, and it was resolved to refer the matter to Providence by a public fight between the dog and the accused. The man was allowed a club, and the dog was provided with a barrel for shelter when weary. After a long and desperate contest, the criminal was overcome by his brute antagonist, confessed the crime, and was executed.

The game of cards, since so universal, was invented in the reign of Charles, to divert his mind, in the melancholy complaint to which he was so long subjected.

On his death, the dauphin was at once proclaimed king, by the few loyal nobles who remained with him, under the title of Charles VII. He was crowned at Poictiers—Rheims, the ancient place of coronation, being in possession of the English. His fortunes, however, appeared desperate; when, in 1428, an extraordinary event came to his relief. Joan, the daughter of a poor peasant, Jacques D'Arc, residing at Domremy, began, at the age of thirteen, to imagine herself inspired. She saw visions of saints and angels, and heard them exhorting her to repair to the deliverance of her country. By frequent exercise, she had become accustomed to riding on horseback and other manly exercises, and at the age of seventeen repaired to Charles, and informed him of her divine mission. A commission of ecclesiastics was appointed to examine her claims; and, either convinced of the reality of her inspiration, or aware of the political value of her enthusiasm, they solemnly reported in favour of the truth of her pretensions. Arrayed in complete armour, and mounted on a splendid gray charger, she repaired to Orleans, which was then closely besieged by the English. She was received with the highest religious enthusiasm, and, leading the troops in person, commenced an energetic warfare with the English. They were, on almost every occasion, defeated; great numbers of them, struck with a religious awe, deserted; and Talbot, the English commander, was compelled to raise the siege. Other successes followed, and Charles, according to her prediction, was soon enabled to enter Rheims victoriously, and be solemnly crowned after the manner of his ancestors. She then entreated permission to retire to her home, affirming that her

mission was accomplished. The king however, desirous of availing himself of her services during the remainder of the war, would not assent. Her family was enriched and ennobled, and she recommenced her exploits.

At length, being treacherously deserted in a skirmish by her companions, who were jealous of her superior renown, she fell into the hands of the duke of Burgundy, who sold her for a large sum to the duke of Bedford. The English meanly resolved to avenge themselves on this woman, before whose arms they had so often fled. A commission of priests and others, headed by the infamous French bishop of Beauvais, was appointed to try her on a charge of sorcery. She was convicted, and, to the eternal dishonour of all concerned, and especially of Charles, was burned as a witch in the market-place of Rouen on the 30th of May, 1431. Many of those who, according to the superstition of the times, had believed in her guilt, on witnessing the constancy and piety of her end, were struck with remorse, and went away, exclaiming, in anguish, "We are lost! a holy person has been burned."

This cruel and cowardly act availed the English little. They lost city after city, and were speedily driven out of all France, except Calais. Charles, after an absence of seventeen years, reëntered his capital, in November, 1437. In the following year a dreadful famine and pestilence laid waste the country; and it is said that wolves roved through the deserted streets of Paris.

In 1440, peace was concluded, and the duke of Orleans, the king's cousin, who had been a prisoner in England for twenty-five years, returned to his country. His son afterwards became king of France. The latter days of King Charles were much disturbed by the rebellious and unnatural conduct of the dauphin, an odious wretch, who afterwards, under the title of Louis XI., so long tyrannized over the French nation. He had taken refuge with the duke of Burgundy, but still continued his machinations against the life of his father. The unhappy monarch, continually dreading poison, refused to take food, and thus, it is said, perished of starvation, in the year 1461. He had lived fifty-eight years, and reigned thirty-nine.

Louis, supported by his powerful ally and vassal, the duke of Burgundy, after being crowned at Rheims, proceeded to Paris, and assumed the government. His disregard of their order excited discontent among the nobles, and a powerful league was formed against him, headed by the dukes of Berri and Brétagne, and Charles, the

Count of Charalois, son of Burgundy. A large army was assembled by the malcontents; but by liberal and politic promises, he contrived to break up the confederacy.

He soon found himself in a more perilous condition. Charles, who had succeeded his father in the powerful principality of Burgundy, was a man of fiery courage and ungovernable passions. It was agreed that Louis and himself should hold a personal conference at Peronne, a town of Burgundy; and the former, with but few attendants, came thither, and was lodged in the castle. During their interview, news came that the people of Liege, a town of Flanders belonging to Burgundy, had been excited to insurrection by the emissaries of Louis. The duke, terribly incensed, made him prisoner on the spot, and for two days remained in a state of furious agitation, unable to decide upon his execution. At length, by the influence of his chief officers, who were in the pay of the captive monarch, he spared his life, though upon humiliating conditions; and the king, compelled to accompany Charles to Flanders, was forced to witness and sanction the indiscriminate execution of those whom he had incited to revolt.

Edward IV. of England, a warlike and ambitious prince, entered France, by his port of Calais, in 1475, with a large army, and laid claim to the crown. By a dexterous use of bribery, the politic Louis was, however, enabled to purchase peace, and the two monarchs held a personal interview upon a bridge, with a strong grating between, to prevent treachery. Through this cautious obstacle they managed to embrace, held a conference, and separated upon friendly terms.

The duke of Burgundy, attempting to conquer Switzerland, experienced two terrible defeats from the brave mountaineers. After the battle of Morat, the remains of his slaughtered army were heaped into a huge pyramid, as their only burial.

> "Here Burgundy bequeathed his tombless host,
> A bony heap, through ages to remain,
> Themselves their sepulchre."

A portion of this fatal mound remained until recently, though much diminished by the pious care of the Burgundians, all of whom passing that way, carried home some relics of their countrymen. Charles himself soon afterwards lost his life, by treachery or violence, while besieging the town of Nancy.

Louis publicly gave thanks for the death of the duke, and immediately seized his territories; the people, worn out by disastrous wars, could offer no resistance. Edward IV. was dead, and Louis now seemed at the height of his power; yet he was utterly miserable. Aware of the hatred of his people, whom he had terribly oppressed, he immured himself for life in the castle of Plessis, which was strongly fortified and guarded by his Scottish archers. Here, surrounded by gibbets, on which his unhappy subjects were suspended, he led an unenviable life, governing by his barber and his executioner, and vainly trying to ward off the approach of death by collecting a great quantity of relics. The Pope sent him many articles of this nature; and even the Grand Turk considerately despatched a supply; but all in vain, for he expired in August, 1483, after an odious and oppressive reign of twenty-two years.

During this time, however, either by bequest, purchase, or conquest, nearly all the important principalities in the limits of the ancient kingdom had come into the hands of the sovereign, whose power and independence were thus wonderfully increased.

His son Charles VIII., who, on account of his father's jealousy, had hitherto been deprived of all means of improvement, was of a most excellent and amiable disposition, but deficient in judgment and sagacity. As he was only fourteen, his guardianship, by the will of Louis, was conferred on his eldest sister. Her authority was confirmed by the States General, and the duke of Orleans, who had opposed her, fled to Bretagne. War was hereupon commenced against that province; Orleans was taken prisoner, and closely confined; and Charles secured the dukedom by marrying the Princess Anne, its sole heiress.

Charles of Anjou had bequeathed to Louis his claim upon Naples, and the young king, anxious to acquire military glory, in 1494, set out for Italy, with eighteen thousand men. Proclaiming himself the enemy of the Italian tyrants, he passed triumphantly through the peninsula. Rome and Naples threw open their gates, and welcomed him as a deliverer. While, however, the French abandoned themselves to revelry and military license, a powerful confederacy was formed against them, consisting of the Emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Spain, and the Italian princes. Charles was compelled to return immediately, and, with only nine thousand men, encountered an army of more than four times his number, in the valley of Fornova. Leaving three thousand of the enemy dead

upon the field, he retreated into France, and was compelled to abandon his Italian conquests.

In his domestic administration, he displayed great love of justice, and a desire for reform. His people, however, did not long enjoy the benefit of these virtues, for he expired, from the effects of an accident, in April, 1498, in the fifteenth year of his reign, and the twenty-eighth of his age. His surname of "the Courteous" indicates his amiable deportment; and no sovereign ever died more beloved by all with whom he came in intercourse.

CHAPTER IV.

THE HOUSE OF VALOIS CONTINUED.

As Charles left no children, he was succeeded by the duke of Orleans, great grandson of Charles V., who, at the age of thirty-six, ascended the throne, under the title of Louis XII. Educated amid reverses, he had learned wisdom from misfortune; and so studiously promoted the good of his people as to receive their enthusiastic affection. Commerce, science, and literature were zealously encouraged; taxes were lessened; and the administration of justice was improved. In his foreign affairs, he was at first less prudent and less fortunate.

Having certain claims upon Milan, he took possession of that duchy and of the republic of Genoa; and then, by agreement with Ferdinand of Spain, despoiled the king of Naples of his territories. The allies quarrelled, however, about the division of their spoil; and Gonsalvo de Cordova, the "Great Captain," by treachery and military skill, secured the whole for his master, Ferdinand.

In 1508, the celebrated Pope Julius II., one of the most able men that ever sat upon a throne, induced Louis, Ferdinand, and the Emperor Maximilian, to suspend their mutual hostilities, and turn their arms against the republic of Venice, which had become formidably powerful. The Venetians were thus despoiled of considerable territory. In 1510, Julius and Louis engaged in hostilities, and the

former was completely overcome. Two years afterwards, assisted by Ferdinand and the Venetians, he renewed the war; but, with his allies, was defeated by the French, in a great battle at Ravenna, and died in the following year. Leo X., another distinguished patron of art and letters, succeeded him.

In 1513, Henry VIII., the youthful king of England, who had espoused the cause of Maximilian, assisted in defeating the French at Guinegate; but in the following year Anne, the widow of Charles, (whom Louis had married,) dying, peace was concluded, and cemented by the marriage of the French king to Mary, sister of the English monarch. Louis did not long survive this alliance. He died January 1st, 1515, in the fifty-third year of his age, after a reign of seventeen years. His care for the happiness of his subjects gained him the enviable title of "Father of his people."

In default of direct male heirs, the crown next passed to the count of Angouleme, cousin of the late monarch, who became king, under the title of Francis I., at the age of twenty-one. This gallant and chivalrous prince possessed some faults natural to those of his temperament. He was headstrong and dissipated; and his court, filled with the most beautiful and sometimes frailest ladies in the realm, presented a striking contrast to the gravity of his predecessors.

Milan was still the object of his desires; and in spite of the opposition of the Pope, the emperor, and Ferdinand, he came off victorious. The brave Chevalier Bayard crossed the Alps, and surprised the enemy; Francis in person defeated the Swiss, and Milan submitted.

Charles I., grandson of Ferdinand, perhaps the most able sovereign of his time, had inherited immense possessions, both in the old and new worlds. In seeking the office of emperor of Germany, which is elective, he found a rival in Francis. The most disastrous wars were incurred from this mutual jealousy. Both sought the friendship of Henry VIII., but Charles, gaining the first interview, and being nephew to Queen Catherine, gained the advantage. Nevertheless, the French and English sovereigns, by mutual agreement, met at a place near Ardres, called, from the magnificence displayed, the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." For eighteen days, while occasionally discussing graver matters, they mingled in youthful amusements, and lived in the greatest intimacy. Both excelled in martial sports; but Henry, one day, seizing his fellow-sovereign by the collar, and provoking him to wrestle, received a severe fall, and was laid flat upon his back.

The king of Spain had gained his object, and had become emperor under the title of Charles V. Francis, enraged at his disappointment, and easily finding a pretext for war, sent an army into Spain and another into Italy. The latter, ill-commanded, was repeatedly defeated and repulsed—the constable of Bourbon, the best general in France, remaining unemployed at home. Louisa of Savoy, the king's mother, and a woman of detestable character, wished to marry him. He rejected the proposal in such terms that the king gave him a blow. His possessions, under pretext of law, were soon stripped from him, and, eager for revenge, he entered the service of the emperor. The latter made him liberal promises, and he invaded France; but being joined by no one, was compelled to retreat.

Francis had been for some time besieging the city of Pavia, when a large force, under the constable and Lannoy, came to its relief. On the 23d of February, 1525, a desperate battle was fought, in which Francis, after displaying great personal valour, was utterly defeated, and was taken prisoner. He wrote to his mother the celebrated despatch, "Madam, all is lost, except honour." The emperor, demanding unreasonable terms, kept his rival close prisoner for a year, during which he had nearly died from confinement and inquietude. He finally accepted the emperor's conditions, and was released, leaving his two sons as hostages; but, on regaining his dominions, dishonourably refused compliance, alleging that the promises of a captive were not binding.

In these desolating wars fell the brave and honourable Chevalier Bayard, "the knight without fear and without reproach." He was considered, in his own day, as ever since, the model of pure chivalry, and the king himself besought knighthood at his hand on the field of battle. Finding him mortally wounded, the duke of Bourbon lamented his fate, to which Bayard replied, "I am not to be pitied; but those who are fighting against their country."

In 1529, a treaty of peace was concluded, by which Francis paid a heavy ransom for his sons, and married Eleanor, the emperor's sister. Relieved from the anxieties of war, he devoted much attention to literature and the fine arts. Benvenuto Cellini and other distinguished artists adorned his court. Palaces were rebuilt, and statues and paintings of high merit were produced. The climate at this time underwent a remarkable change, and from 1528 to 1534, France was under a perpetual summer. Nature, in consequence, experiencing no period of rest, was unable to bring her products to

maturity, and a terrible famine was the result. This, and the usually attending pestilence, carried off a fourth of the inhabitants of France.

The war with Charles was renewed in 1536, and continued for eight years, during which the emperor was generally assisted by Henry. Peace was concluded in 1544; and three years afterwards Francis, who had been ill for a long time, expired, on the 31st of March, 1547, in the fifty-third year of his age and the thirty-second of his reign. The courage and magnificence of this king delighted the French nation, ever fond of glory and display; and he has always been an especial favourite of their historians.

His son Henry II. succeeded, and with his queen, Catherine de Medicis, was entertained, on their public entry into Paris, among other amusements, with the execution of several heretics;—a dreadful spectacle, which so affected the king, that he never entirely recovered from the shock. In 1555, the Emperor Charles V., so long the enemy of France, voluntarily resigned his immense possessions to his son Philip II., and retired into a convent. The Pope, being at enmity with Philip, sought the aid of Henry, who despatched the duke of Guise, with a powerful force, to attempt the conquest of Naples. He was, however, unable to accomplish any thing; and Philip, on learning of the movement, invaded France with fifty thousand troops. The duke of Savoy, their commander, laid siege to St. Quentin, and on the 10th of August, 1557, the French, commanded by the Constable Montmorenci and Admiral Coligni, suffered a terrible defeat. The incapacity of Philip alone saved France from greater misfortunes. In January, 1558, the town of Calais, which had long been the only foothold of the English in France, was taken by the duke of Guise, in a sudden and daring attack, to the great delight of the whole nation, and the corresponding discomfiture of the English. In 1559, peace was concluded, and was ratified by the marriage of Philip to the eldest daughter of Henry. The occasion proved fatal to the French monarch. In the tournament which was celebrated in honour of the alliance, he received a fatal injury from the lance of one of his opponents; and after lingering eleven days, expired, on the 10th of July, 1559, in the forty-first year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign.

His son Francis II., at the age of sixteen, came to the throne. His mother, Catherine de Medicis, a daughter of the most celebrated house of Florence, assumed the entire direction of affairs. This infamous woman, talented and unprincipled by nature, had been

educated amid the dark and tortuous politics of an Italian court. She was naturally cruel, and was, moreover, a bigoted enemy of the reformed religion, which had now extended widely through the kingdom. The duke of Guise and his brother the cardinal, ardent Catholics, were in league with the queen; and the Bourbons, (of whom Anthony enjoyed the title of King of Navarre,) the opponents of this powerful family, were banished from court. A savage persecution of the Huguenots, as the French Protestants were called, commenced. The courts established for the suppression of heresy committed such numbers to the flames, that they acquired the terrible title of "*Les chambres ardentes*,"—"burning chambers." The wise and admirable chancellor, l'Hopital, in vain endeavoured to stay these cruelties. He succeeded, however, in preventing the introduction of the inquisition.

The persecuted party was too powerful to submit without resistance. Henry de Bourbon, prince of Condé, and brother to the king of Navarre, was at the head of the reformed believers. The Admiral Coligni, and many others of high rank, were of the same persuasion. Their plans for self-defence being discovered, the prince was condemned to lose his head. By the exertions of l'Hopital, the execution was delayed; and meanwhile the young king, who for some time had been ill, expired on the 5th of December, 1560, after a reign of only sixteen months.

His brother, Charles IX., at the age of ten years, succeeded him, under the guardianship of Catherine. This event saved the life of Condé, and gave a check to the Guises; for the queen, to counterbalance their influence, entered into alliance with the Bourbons, and effected an apparent reconciliation of the two rival families. As Charles grew up, it became manifest that his disposition, naturally harsh and eccentric, had been greatly injured by evil education. The country was soon in a condition that might have tried a wiser and abler ruler. The Catholics, alarmed at the increasing number of the Huguenots, and the toleration extended to them, began to think of again resorting to force. An accidental affray, in which the duke of Guise was injured, brought on a devastating civil war. This contest, which for a long time divided France, was distinguished by a ferocity unusual even in civil warfare. Friendship and relationship seemed set at nought, and innumerable private massacres were committed. Condé, who commanded the Huguenots, was defeated at Dreux, and taken prisoner by Guise, who, however, treated him

French Costume,
IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XI.

French Costume,
IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS VI.

French Costume
IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIII

French Costume,
OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

with much confidence and magnanimity. The duke himself, the next year, 1563, fell by the hand of an assassin, and died, exhorting the queen to make peace between the contending parties. His wishes were complied with; and the Huguenots received favourable terms.

In 1567, the reformed party, oppressed and deceived, again took up arms. The Constable Montmorenci was killed early in the war, and on the 13th of March, 1569, Condé himself, after displaying great skill and valour, fell upon the field of Jarnac. His forces, overpowered by the enemy, under Tavannes, who were four times their number, were compelled to yield. At the death of Condé, the prince of Bearn, heir to Navarre, (afterwards the famous Henry IV.) a youth of sixteen, became the head of the reformed party. He was already distinguished by his intelligence, prudence, and amiable manners.

In 1570, peace was concluded, and, to cement it, a marriage between Henry and the king's sister, Margaret, was resolved upon. With the principal persons of his party, he repaired to Paris. The young sovereign, now king of Navarre, was married in 1572, and during the festivities of the occasion, a most horrible plot was matured for the extirpation of the Protestant party. Some of the leaders suspected treachery, and one of them said to Coligni, "I am going to quit Paris, because they seem too fond of us." For two years, Catherine and the duke of Guise (who inherited more than his father's hostility to the reformation) had been engaged in preparing this atrocious scheme: the king had been prevailed on to give his consent; and their enemies had been invited to Paris for the express purpose of ending the matters in dispute by a general massacre. On the 24th of August, 1572, six days after the marriage, at a given signal, the tolling of the great bell of the palace, an indiscriminate slaughter of the Protestants commenced. Five thousand of them were murdered in Paris, and at least seventy thousand in the provinces. The brave and venerable Admiral Coligni was killed by the express commands of the duke, who presided over the massacre; and it is said that Charles himself fired with a musket, from his palace window, upon the unfortunate victims as they ran through the streets below. A public thanksgiving was offered for the success of this wholesale butchery, which occurred upon the night of St. Bartholomew, and has taken its name from that circumstance. Two millions, however, of the Huguenots, remained; and, rather than drive them to desperation, a peace was concluded.

From the time of his implication in this terrible crime, Charles enjoyed no rest. He was continually tormented by remorse, and it is supposed that his fate was accelerated by a slow poison. He died on the 30th May, 1574, in the twenty-fourth year of his age, after a reign of thirteen years. During this disturbed and bloody period, it is remarkable that many improvements were effected in the laws, and in the administration of justice. These reforms were due to the untiring and benevolent efforts of the chancellor, l'Hopital, the most enlightened and virtuous public character of his age.

The king's brother, Henry of Anjou, who by this event became heir to the throne, had been elected king of Poland, and was in that country at the time of Charles' death. Delighted with his new prospects, he fled from his kingdom suddenly, by night, and hastened to take possession of his native domains. He was now in his twenty-third year. His habits were exceedingly effeminate, and his amusements childish in the extreme. His country, meanwhile, was distracted by the religious contests which still prevailed. The duke of Guise, after the peace of 1576, formed a powerful "League" of the Catholics to oppose the reformation. The king himself and Philip of Spain joined the confederacy; and in the war which ensued, the Huguenots were compelled to resist a most powerful combination of enemies. Henry of Navarre was now the next heir to the throne, and the Catholics were filled with alarm, on account of his religion and his talents. The ambitious and powerful duke of Guise was, however, the most influential person in the kingdom, and his popularity and his evident designs on the throne excited the king's jealousy. On his arrival at Paris he was received with such enthusiasm by the citizens, that Henry resolved to secure himself from further trouble by assassination; and accordingly the duke, being summoned to attend the royal council, was murdered in the halls of the palace, by the king's emissaries. His brother, the cardinal, perished in the same manner, the next day.

The "League," enraged at this atrocity, took up arms, and the Sorbonne, the great ecclesiastical tribunal, declared that the king had forfeited the throne. With some difficulty, he obtained the support of the king of Navarre, who, with a considerable army, came to his assistance. In 1589, they appeared with a large army before Paris; but the alarm of the citizens was relieved by an unexpected event. A fanatical monk, named Jacques Clement, instigated by the League, having gained an interview with the king, stabbed him

mortally. He died, bequeathing his crown to Henry of Navarre, and entreating him to embrace the Catholic faith. The news of his death was received with frantic joy by the Parisians, and his assassin was consecrated as a saint by the entire priesthood, the Pope included. With this sovereign ended the line of Valois, which for two hundred and sixty-one years had ruled the kingdom. During these long and disastrous civil wars, the condition of France was wretched in the extreme. Even in time of nominal peace, fights, massacres, and bloody revenges were of daily occurrence, and the morals of the people had terribly deteriorated. Learning and refinement had, however, made considerable progress. The poetry of Ronsard, and the admirable essays of Montaigne had already delighted the world. Literature was more zealously pursued than at any former time.

CHAPTER V.

THE HOUSE OF BOURBON.—HENRY IV. AND LOUIS XIII.

HENRY IV., deservedly known in history as Henry the Great, did not arrive at the throne without experiencing the most formidable opposition. The League was still arrayed against him, and hastened to proclaim as king the Cardinal Bourbon, his uncle, under the title of Charles X. At the age of thirty-six, he commenced a successful struggle for the throne. Gay, amiable, and cheerful, he endeared to himself all who approached him. The peasantry especially, for whose welfare he was always anxious, adored him, and when not restrained by religious bigotry or the control of their masters, were ready to espouse his cause.

Though secretly desirous of assuring his title to the throne by a public conversion to Catholicism, he thought the time unfavourable, and accordingly rejected the overtures of those who, on that condition, would have supported him. He issued, however, an edict, assuring support and protection to the Catholic religion, and then, with his few remaining followers, retreated to the coast near Dieppe. The duke of Mayenne, chief commander of the League, with twenty

thousand men, marched in pursuit; Henry, with a small force of faithful followers, less in number than a fourth of the enemy, awaited him at the castle and village of Arques. By the treachery of the foreign mercenaries, who, under pretence of joining his little army, got safe within the intrenchments, he had almost sustained an entire defeat; but throwing himself into the midst of the fight, and performing acts of the greatest heroism, he succeeded in repulsing the enemy, and gained an important victory.

Reinforced by the troops which Queen Elizabeth of England had despatched to the aid of the Protestant cause, he advanced to Paris. Unable to gain possession of the capital, he waged war in the provinces, and succeeded in reducing several towns. On the 14th of March, 1590, Mayenne, with sixteen thousand men, encountered the king, whose forces were greatly inferior in number, on the celebrated field of Ivry. Henry exhorted his faithful adherents to follow his white plume, assuring them that it would ever be found on the path to honour and victory. Leading the charge in person, and killing the standard-bearer of the leaguers with his own hand, he dispersed the enemy, and utterly defeated them. Further advantages followed, and he was soon enabled to invest the city of Paris, which, bigoted in the Romish faith, stoutly withstood him. His compassion, in allowing provisions to enter the city, and the useless inhabitants to pass his lines, prevented him from reducing it; and the approach of Mayenne and the Spaniards compelled him to raise the siege.

Philip of Spain was anxious to secure the crown for his own daughter, the infanta; but failed to carry his point with the assembled nobles, whom Henry had privately informed of his disposition to be converted. He was already listening to the arguments of the most learned Catholic divines; and in spite of the opposition of Spain, and of the papal legate, (who styled him a "relapsed heretic,") it was sufficiently evident that his heretical opinions were the only bar to his certain accession to the throne.

Indeed, it had been manifest for some time that the king could secure peace to the country and toleration to the Huguenots only by embracing the Catholic religion. This piece of policy was advocated by Sully and other eminent men of the reformed faith; and accordingly, in July, 1593, Henry made a public profession of his Catholicism in the Church of St. Denis. The Parisians, sallying in vast numbers from their walls, crowded around him with enthu-

siastic joy; and he was soon enabled to unite the kingdom in complete submission.

Entering Paris on the 22d of March, 1594, he was received with much enthusiasm, and soon proclaimed a general amnesty; his former opponents, their bigotry being quieted, were charmed with the kindness and frankness of his manners. The miserable domestic wars, in which France, for thirty-seven years, had been involved, were thus terminated; and the rights of the Huguenots were finally assured by the celebrated "Edict of Nantes," securing to them perfect toleration, and making them eligible to all offices of honour and dignity.

Henry, aware of the importance of the friendship of the Pope, used every effort to conciliate him, and was finally solemnly acknowledged as king, and received full absolution. Mayenne and other obstinate leaguers, on learning this, submitted, and gave in their complete adhesion. The Jesuits, however, who were supposed to have countenanced two attempts upon his life, were expelled from the kingdom. The Spaniards, who still maintained hostilities, were finally driven from France, and in 1598 terms of peace were agreed upon.

The remainder of Henry's reign, though on the whole prosperous and successful, was troubled by the quarrels and treasonable schemes of his nobles, one of whom, Marshal Biron, was publicly executed as an example to the rest. He was married in 1600 to Mary de Medicis, but still retained that proneness to intrigue and licentiousness which formed the least estimable part of his disposition.

The king's genuine kindness of heart, and his frankness of disposition, had, however, made him universally popular. He longed, he said, to see the day when every peasant of France should have a chicken in his pot. Taxes, though still high, were now paid with cheerfulness. An insurrection of the peasantry in Guienne was quelled, without sanguinary measures, by redressing their wrongs. Paris, which on his entry was half-deserted and ruined, sprang into new prosperity under his wise and liberal government. France had never enjoyed the prospect of such happiness and advancement. All these fair anticipations were destined to be disappointed.

The king was for some time oppressed with the anticipation of his impending end; he was depressed in spirits, and intimated that his death was near at hand. His prognostications were fatally realized. On the 14th of May, 1610, while passing in his carriage slowly through a crowd, an assassin, named Ravaillac, inspired by fanati-

cism, leaped upon the wheel, and stabbed him twice in the breast. He survived but a brief time, and expired amid the heartfelt lamentations of the whole kingdom. He was in the fifty-seventh year of his age and the twenty-first of his reign. The murderer was put to death with the most studied and barbarous tortures.

His eldest son, Louis XIII., was, at the age of nine, proclaimed king, and the regency conferred on his mother, the king's widow, Mary de Medicis. She was a liberal patron of arts and letters, but was unfit to govern, and confided all her power to an Italian adventurer, whom she raised to the title of Marquis D'Ancre and marshal of France. The nobility, enraged at his insolence, resolved on his destruction; and de Luynes, the companion of the young king, now at the age of sixteen, persuaded him to sign an order for the marshal's arrest. Vitry, the captain of the guard, in executing this warrant, maliciously shot his prisoner, whose body was soon suspended on one of the numerous gibbets which he had erected to overawe the people of Paris.

De Luynes, who, by his influence with Louis, succeeded him in authority, was also excessively arrogant and haughty. Universal corruption prevailed at court, and the country was miserably misgoverned—murders and robberies being constant, even in the streets of Paris, and their perpetrators often being the servants of the nobility and gentry. The king, who was weak-minded and indolent, left every thing to his favourite, the duke de Luynes, who kept himself almost inaccessible to the public. At the death of the latter, in 1621, his place was filled by one of his confidants, Armand du Plessis, afterwards Cardinal Richelieu, and for many years the real ruler of France.

This extraordinary man, who was an ecclesiastic by education, and a soldier and politician by nature, was made a bishop at the age of twenty-one—a circumstance which never deterred him from assuming armour, and taking the field in person. His ambition and vanity were both excessive, and he aspired to excel in every department of genius—war, statesmanship, letters, and even dancing—his performances in which latter branch of the fine arts are said to have convulsed the queen with laughter, and caused her to incur his mortal enmity.

By adroit and daring measures, he completely overthrew the nobles who were in league against him, and made himself entire master of the state. He besieged and took the strong city of

Rochelle, the last refuge of the Huguenots, after a desperate defence, in which only four thousand out of fourteen thousand of its defenders survived. The power of the reformed faction was thus completely broken, and it was compelled entirely to succumb to the more numerous party of the Catholics. After a long and troubled administration, during much of which France was engaged in contests with Austria, he expired, and with him the extensive and ambitious plans which he had formed, and but partially realized. He died in 1642, and the king, who had long been a mere puppet in his hands, followed him in May, 1643, leaving his son Louis XIV., a child of four years old, heir to the crown. He was forty-one years of age, and had reigned thirty-three.

During this reign, the cardinal, who like Wolsey, was a magnificent patron of art and letters, did much for the encouragement of science and genius. He reared a splendid palace, still the ornament of Paris, and founded the "Jardin des Plantes," that admirable institution, the most complete in the world, for the promotion of a knowledge of Natural History. He encouraged Corneille and Moliere, the latter the most brilliant name in French literature, and tried, but vainly, to emulate their excellence in his own writings. He also founded the celebrated Academy, to which, amid some folly and false philosophy, Europe owes so much of refinement and liberality.

CHAPTER VI.

THE HOUSE OF BOURBON.—LOUIS XIV. AND LOUIS XV.

By the king's will, affairs were to be administered by a council, the queen, Anne of Austria, having a nominal regency. Anne, however, usurped all the powers of government to herself and her favourite, cardinal Mazarin, an Italian adventurer, hated by the entire nation. By his supple and insinuating course, the reverse of Richelieu's, he, however, continued in power for many years. The wars kindled by the late cardinal survived him, and France, which for some time had been gratified by no victory of importance, soon

learned with joy, in 1643, of the important triumph of Rocroi. The Spaniards, twenty-five thousand strong, were besieging the town of that name, and the duc d'Enghien, better known afterwards as "the Great Condé," marched, with inferior forces, to its assistance. By his skilful dispositions, and by the most extraordinary personal valour, he succeeded in defeating the enemy, and annihilating the flower of the Spanish army. This decisive action completely overthrew the military ascendancy of Spain, and highly animated the national desire of the French for military glory. In 1645 the youthful hero, aided by Turenne, gave the imperialists a severe defeat at Nordlingen; and in 1648 defeated them at Lens.

The emperor was finally compelled, in October, to conclude the treaty of Westphalia, by which France gained important acquisitions, and found herself in better condition to resist the attacks of Spain, which yet continued hostile.

The cardinal, always unpopular, as a foreigner and a favourite, soon found a most formidable opposition, proceeding from the magistracy or parliament. Popular rights, though little understood, were beginning to be recognised, and the commons, debarred from holding office or honours, commenced an obstinate resistance of the royal edicts. The parliament, which in reality had no legislative power of importance, began to allege its authority to withhold sanction from the regal imposition of taxes. The queen was excessively indignant at this assumption, and Mazarin vainly sought to temporize. The popular party insisted on immediate reform, and sent in a schedule of demands, which was received with fresh indignation by the court. Elated by the victories of Condé, the latter resolved to suppress the obnoxious movement by violence, and six of the most important magistrates were arrested. Great popular tumults immediately succeeded. The coadjutor (afterwards bishop and cardinal) De Retz, a man of high talents, but of artful, intriguing, and seditious temper, proved a most able and formidable adviser of the people. Barricades were instantly thrown up in all the principal streets of Paris; the troops were unable to repress the populace; and the court was compelled to yield up its prisoners. Taking advantage of a temporary lull, the queen and her favourite, with all the court, fled to St. Germains, where, for a time, they were reduced to great straits for want of the common conveniences of life. The civil contest which succeeded, called the war of the "Fronde," though thus commencing with a question of popular rights, soon

degenerated into a mere struggle for power and emolument among a crowd of venal and ambitious nobles. As interest prompted, they threw their influence into the scale of the cardinal or the popular party—De Retz and Condé themselves being no exceptions. The contest took its name from the "frondeurs," or juvenile slingers, who had been active in the first demonstration, and was rather characterized by an effusion of wit and satire than of bloodshed. Many ladies of the first rank took an active part in the intrigues and even the open hostilities of this quarrel.

In 1649 the court, which had returned to Paris, was again compelled to fly, and Condé, with twelve thousand men, was sent to overawe the city. Some inconsiderable skirmishes took place, and peace was restored, for a time, by the admirable boldness and patriotism of Molé, president of the magistracy. Condé himself, who had been intriguing with the Fronde, and whose haughtiness displeased the court, was soon after arrested, and, to the surprise of all, the cardinal formed a league with De Retz and other violent leaders of the insurrectionary movement. The partisans of Condé, however, withstood the government in the provinces, and the parliament insisted on his liberation. The dismission of Mazarin was also demanded, and the favourite, yielding for awhile to the storm, left the kingdom in disgrace. Condé was released, and might easily have held the highest position in the government but for his quarrels with De Retz and other powerful leaders of the Fronde. The wily Mazarin, seeing his opponents weakened by their quarrels, soon returned, levied an army, and joined the queen, with whom he was supposed to be connected by closer ties than those of politics. By judicious alliances with the nobility, he greatly strengthened his position, and with a considerable force advanced toward Paris. Condé, who had been engaged in a desultory warfare with the royal forces, was already there. With very inferior forces, he withstood the attack of Turenne with the most desperate valour, and for a time maintained his position in the capital. The burgesses, however, refusing to sanction his schemes, he delivered them to the outrage and massacre of the mob. This act so tarnished his cause that he was compelled to retreat. The court entered Paris in triumph; the magistracy entirely succumbed, and all the contested points were yielded by the parliament. Mazarin soon returned publicly to his post, while Condé, ruined at home, took service with the Spanish king, and was appointed general over his forces. His

great rival and opponent, Marshal Turenne, commanded the French, and after a series of engagements, in which he was almost uniformly successful, compelled the enemy to ask for peace. The "treaty of the Pyrenees," concluded in 1659, restored peace to the two nations, Louis marrying the daughter of the king of Spain, and renouncing all claims to the Spanish throne. Two years afterwards, Mazarin died, having preserved his power by subtle and unscrupulous policy for nearly eighteen years. On this event, the king, at the age of twenty-three, took the government into his own hands; and during the remainder of a reign of seventy-three years, never afterwards relinquished the supreme control to any minister or favourite.

The predominant quality of the young monarch was an intense selfishness. He was by no means destitute of abilities, though not brilliant; and he was served by able officers, both in war and the state. Colbert, the minister, had brought his finances into a flourishing condition; and with Turenne for a general, and Vauban for an engineer, he commenced a system of aggrandizement at the expense of his neighbours. He was at first foiled by the alliance of several northern powers, but having succeeded in detaching Charles II., of England, from the confederacy, invaded Holland on a trivial pretext, in 1672, with a formidable army.

The defenceless and feeble republic was soon reduced to extremity. It was in serious contemplation among the citizens to leave their country for ever, and found a new nation in the East Indian Archipelago. Peace was impossible; for nothing short of the most abject servitude would satisfy the victor. In this miserable state of affairs, the young prince of Orange, (afterwards William III., of England,) a man of high talents and of indomitable courage, was placed at the head of their government.

Their new leader adopted the most energetic means of defence. The sluices were opened, and the country was laid under water; thus at least protecting the capital until winter should render the ice passable. In the following year Spain declared in their favour, and William, with the imperial forces, making a demonstration upon France itself, Louis withdrew his army. The following year, Charles was compelled by the popular feeling to relinquish his alliance with Louis. The latter nevertheless maintained the war, and Turenne, his general, although ill-supplied, carried on an energetic campaign against the allies. In pursuance of the savage orders of Louvois, the minister of war, a large and fertile district of the frontier was

laid waste with fire and sword. At the field of Senef, Condé engaged the Dutch and Spaniards, commanded by the prince of Orange, and, after a murderous encounter, in which twenty thousand men were left upon the field, gained a doubtful victory. Turenne, after exhibiting the most remarkable skill and perseverance in his campaign against the imperialists and other allies, was killed, in 1766, by a cannon-shot. The war, after this event, languished, and few actions of importance occurred. At length, in 1678, by the mediation of England, a peace was concluded, at Nimeguen, leaving matters much as they were before the war; France, however, having acquired some accession of territory. During these conflicts, Louis, who was much fonder of the renown than of the perils or fatigues of warfare, had occasionally joined his armies; but for the most part left the weight of the campaign to his generals. He was, nevertheless, overwhelmed with adulation as a second Alexander.

The chief influence at court was that of Madame de Maintenon, whom the king, in 1685, two years after the death of his wife, privately married. She was the widow of Scarron, an eminent wit, and a man of the most fascinating address, though terribly deformed and crippled in consequence of an unfortunate accident. She had been governess to a lady of the court, and in this situation attracted the attention of the king, who was charmed with her agreeable manners. She was never publicly acknowledged as queen. Louis, as well as his favourite, was attached in a most bigoted manner to the Church of Rome; and in the year 1685, Le Tellier, a fanatical Romanist, the father of Louvois, persuaded him to commence a horrible persecution of his Protestant subjects.

Several measures of the most alarming nature had already been taken, and in 1685 the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the only safeguard of the reformed religion, induced many to seek a home in lands less exposed to persecution. To check this spirit of emigration, the severest measures were adopted; and the dragoons who were quartered among the unhappy Huguenots, committed the most frightful excesses. Robbery, torture and murder left the persecuted sect no alternative but flight; and in attempting this, thousands were seized by the brutal soldiery, and underwent fresh atrocities. Nevertheless, it is said, not less than half a million found means to escape from the kingdom.

This cruel measure inflicted an irreparable injury on France. The people thus forced into exile were among her most valuable

citizens, and they took with them to other countries the arts and manufactures hitherto peculiar to herself. These unfortunate exiles were distributed among various nations. Great numbers took refuge in the southern states of America, then newly-settled colonies of Great Britain; and they were every where received with kindness and sympathy.

Meanwhile, an alliance between Spain, Germany, and Holland, had been brought about by the prince of Orange, the inveterate enemy of the French. In 1688, by the flight of James II., he gained the throne of England—a position which, however, he considered merely secondary to his grand plan of a European confederacy. France was now engaged in war with Austria, and to prevent the enemy from finding resources, a most barbarous measure was resolved on by Louis, and his minister Louvois. The beautiful palatinate of the Rhine had in some measure recovered from its former devastation. An army of one hundred thousand men was now sent, in the winter of 1688–9, with orders to reduce it to a perfect desert. Every thing which fire and sword could destroy, was consumed; and the wretched inhabitants were left without food or shelter. In the campaigns which followed, the French, under Marshal Luxemburg, gained the advantage over Prince Eugene and his allies; but at sea under admiral Tourville, they experienced a most signal defeat. At length, all parties being exhausted by war, and Louis having further designs, the treaty of Ryswick was concluded in 1697, by which matters were left much as at the commencement of the contest.

Louis had concluded peace only to subserve other schemes of his ambition. The king of Spain was dying, and the French monarch wished to be in a condition to assert the claims which in 1659 he had solemnly renounced. The dying monarch, however, left his dominions by will to Philip, the grandson of Louis, and one of the direct heirs; a scheme for partitioning the kingdom had been on foot, but was now abandoned.

The Emperor Leopold, whose claim was equal to that of Louis, aggrieved at this arrangement, commenced hostilities; and his armies in Italy, under Eugene, gained decided advantages over those of Louis under Catinat and Marshal Villeroi. The French monarch now provoked another enemy in England, by publicly acknowledging in 1701 the son of James II. as king of England, in compliance with a promise made to the dethroned monarch on his death-bed. The famous duke of Marlborough was appointed to

the command of the allied forces, and in a series of brilliant campaigns, reduced the French to a deeply humbled condition. With Eugene, at the battle of Blenheim, in August, 1704, he defeated the French, under Marshal Tallard, who lost forty thousand men out of fifty-six thousand, with which he had commenced the engagement. In 1706, with sixty thousand men, he encountered the French, of equal force, under Marshal Villeroi, at Ramillies. They again sustained a disastrous defeat, with a loss of thirteen thousand men. Various towns were taken; and, in 1708, Louis would willingly have made peace; but the terms of the allies, elated by success, were too unreasonable.

On the 11th of September, 1709, a most terrible battle was fought near the town of Mons, which was besieged by Marlborough and Eugene, and which Marshal Villars attempted to relieve. The two armies, each ninety thousand strong, met at Malplaquet, and the allies, though losing the greater number of troops, again gained the advantage.

Sir George Rooke, with an English fleet, early in the war had taken the strong fortress of Gibraltar, which ever since has been an important military and naval post of the English.

In 1710, Louis offered great concessions, but was unable to secure a peace. His case seemed desperate. An army of an hundred and twenty thousand men, under Marlborough and Eugene, was ready to march into his territory; an effectual resistance could scarcely have been made; and but for the defection of England, terms of peace might have been dictated at Paris itself. But the English ministry, of a Jacobite tendency, was in secret treaty with France; the enemies of Marlborough procured his disgrace; and England, deserting her allies, recalled her forces from the Netherlands, and made a separate peace.

Eugene, left alone, was defeated by Villars at Denain; and a general peace was signed at Utrecht in 1713, the emperor alone maintaining a hostile attitude. Spain was secured to Philip, and other matters were left on nearly the same footing as at the commencement of the war.

The reign, which began so brilliantly, was now drawing to an end in gloom and misfortune. France, by these long-continued wars, was reduced to the most wretched condition; and "Le grand monarque," as his flatterers delighted to call him, now seventy-six years old, beheld himself reduced to a condition of political weakness and

degradation. He had also experienced great domestic affliction. His son the dauphin, his grandson, who succeeded to the title, and the eldest son of the latter, were hurried in rapid succession to the grave, not without dark suspicions of poison. The second of these, Louis of Burgundy, the heir to the throne, was a prince of admirable disposition, and the hope of the French nation. The duke of Berri, another grandson, soon followed, and the sole heirship to the crown thus devolved upon the infant son of Louis of Burgundy.

On the 1st of September, 1715, Louis himself expired, not without remorse at the condition of the splendid kingdom which he had used only as an instrument to serve his ambition, vanity, and pleasure. Like some of his predecessors, he exhorted the next heir to avoid those selfish and oppressive measures from which he himself had not been able to refrain. The people, despite their love of splendour and finery, openly rejoiced at the death of their oppressor. He had reigned seventy-three years, and lived seventy-seven.

During this reign, the longest in the annals of France, or perhaps any other nation, great improvements had taken place in commerce and arts, owing principally to the wise encouragement of his enlightened minister, Colbert. The manufactures of glass, silk, and carpeting, were carried to much perfection. Internal improvements of high importance were commenced: and a successful commerce was opened with the East Indies.

Louis, though without taste for learning himself, was yet, by the advice of his minister, and his love of adulation, a liberal patron of literature. The admirable Moliere, the ornament of his reign, was distinguished by the royal favour. The age produced many eminent writers. Racine, La Fontaine, Montesquieu, and Fontenelle, are still classics in the French language. Great attention was paid to classical literature, and the best authors of antiquity were carefully revised and published "in usum delphini,"—for the use of the dauphin. The object of these attentions, however, did not take to them very kindly, but had rather an aversion to letters.

In no reign have the ecclesiastics been distinguished by more genius and piety. Bossuet, Bourdaloue, and especially the admirable Fenelon, archbishop of Cambray, were distinguished by their learning, eloquence, and virtues. The latter, who was tutor to the dauphin, composed, for the use of his pupil, the celebrated "Telemachus" giving especial precepts of wisdom and virtue for the use of kings.

The great passion of Louis was for building, in which he squandered incredible sums, wrung from his people by taxation. His charming and beautifully-situated palace at St. Germains he forsook because it commanded a view of the church of St. Denis, where his ancestors were deposited, and where he must one day join them. At an expense of nearly a thousand millions of francs, he converted the marshy grounds of Versailles into a royal residence, which, it has been said, "might lodge all the kings of Europe." In this abode of grand and dignified enjoyment, every thing was regulated by an etiquette of the most stately absurdity. A great number of courtiers assembled early in the morning to behold their sovereign perform the ceremony of shaving and dressing, encumbered with the most frivolous forms and observances. He dined before a great crowd of the nobility, and, at night, was put to bed with ceremonies equally cumbrous and ridiculous.

Louis XV. was only five years old at the death of his great grandfather, and the duke of Orleans, a nephew of the late king, assumed the regency. This singular man had naturally an excellent disposition; but evil education, and an irresistible turn for levity, rendered him morally depraved. His first measures were liberal and popular, and excited favourable hopes. His incapacity, however, soon laid the nation open to a terrible injury. The treasury, exhausted by Louis XIV., was greatly embarrassed, and an artful Scotchman, named John Law, proposed a scheme for its relief. This was the establishment of a vast bank, the stock of which should be paid in, in government securities. To tickle the fancy of the Parisians, the new corporation was granted the exclusive privilege of trading to China, Senegal and Mississippi, from the latter of which it takes its popular name. As in the South Sea scheme of England, public enthusiasm rose to an enormous height. Multitudes hastened to invest their all in the delusive plan; and when the bubble burst, an immense number were utterly ruined. The national debt had also been doubled.

In 1722, the regency expired, and the king, at the age of thirteen, took the nominal direction of affairs; Orleans, however, still in reality controlling the government. The latter died in the following year, and was succeeded, as prime minister, by the duke of Bourbon; who, in his turn, soon surrendered his office to the Cardinal de Fleury, an aged, honest, and pacific ecclesiastic. His administration was at first distinguished by nothing of importance, except the com-

mencement of those furious struggles for power between the Jesuits and their rivals, the Jansenists, which afterwards agitated the whole of France. In 1733, Fleury, much against his will, was compelled to engage in war. Stanislaus, the king of Poland, (whose daughter Maria was now queen of France,) had been expelled from his throne by Austria and Russia. An opportunity to replace him occurred, and, urged by the general clamour for warfare, the minister sent forces, under some of the old generals of Louis XIV., to aid him. They effected little, and after a contest of two years, the dispute was adjusted by granting to the dethroned prince the important duchy of Lorraine, which was to be added to the French territories at his death (1735).

Peace now ensued for five years. In 1740 commenced a series of most important events, in which all Europe was soon involved. Frederick the Great, who had lately succeeded to the throne of Prussia, took advantage of the unprotected state of Maria Theresa, empress of Austria, to seize the important province of Silesia. France, animated by ancient hatred, also took up arms against her; but the French forces in Bohemia and Bavaria were finally overpowered by the enemy, and compelled to retreat. In 1743, under Marshal Noailles, they were defeated at the battle of Dettingen by the British, under George II. and the duke of Cumberland.

In 1745, Marshal Saxe, with an army of ninety thousand men, and accompanied by the king of France and the dauphin, laid siege to Tournay. The duke of Cumberland, with fifty thousand, coming to its relief, engaged him at Fontenoy, and after a severe and doubtful struggle, was compelled to retire. The capture of several important Flemish cities succeeded this victory. In the following year, though successful in Flanders, the French forces were defeated at Piacenza, in Italy, and driven from that country. The brilliant successes of Saxe, however, continued; the allies became weary of war; and, in 1748, peace was concluded by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. No result of any importance to France had been attained.

The first movements of that mighty revolution of thought, which afterwards changed the destinies of Europe, now began to be felt. Louis himself, immersed in sloth and sensuality, could not but perceive it. "The monarchy is very old," said he, "but it will last my time." The exciting cause of the popular change of feeling may be found in the contest which arose between the church and the new philosophers, and in the ridiculous quarrels of the church itself. A

host of brilliant and eager intellects, wearied at the absurdity and cruelty of the French Catholic Church, sought refuge in the opposite extreme of skepticism and irreligion. Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot, D'Alembert and others, skilfully exposed the failings and attacked the power of the ancient system. The leading clergy, as Jesuits, and the parliamentary faction, as Jansenists, carried on a furious and ludierous warfare. The court, which favoured the former, persecuted the latter. The cruel executions of Calas, falsely accused of murder, and of La Barre, accused of sacrilege, greatly strengthened the party of those who attacked the church.

The king, who had always been ruled by his mistresses, was now under the influence of Madam de Pompadour, who entirely controlled the government, and managed foreign relations, war, and all the most important matters of the realm. Immense sums were squandered by the king on his seraglio and his favourites.

In the East, that contest for the Indian empire had commenced, which finally resulted in favour of England. In North America, a mutual jealousy, destined to end in a similar result, was already embroiling the colonists. Frederick had now entered into alliance with England, and Louis and his mistress, resenting some of his witticisms, in 1756 joined their fortunes to those of Austria. An expedition, under the duc de Richelieu, took the island of Minorca. Frederick opened the campaign with a brilliant victory over the Austrians and Saxons; and the Seven Years' War, in which, almost single handed, he fought against all Europe, commenced.

In 1757, an attempt was made upon the life of the king by a half-insane wretch, called Damiens. The injury to his person was immaterial, and the unfortunate man was put to death by the most barbarous torments.

In the same year, the French arms, under Richelieu, were highly successful, and the duke of Cumberland was compelled to surrender Hanover. At the battle of Rosbach, however, Frederick, with a greatly inferior force, defeated fifty thousand French and Germans; and instantly celebrated their flight with certain obscene and witty verses. In 1758, Clermont, who had succeeded Richelieu, met with a series of defeats and disasters, and was compelled to retreat into France. In 1759, the French again fought with disadvantage at Minden. The aid of Spain, which supported her, proved valueless. Her ships and colonies were taken by the English; and in 1763, by the treaty of Paris, she ceded Canada and other provinces to

them, certain others being restored to her. At the same time when this disgraceful peace was signed, Prussia and Austria entered into treaty. Frederick still held Silesia, for which more than a million of men had been vainly sacrificed.

During this time, a fierce struggle had been going on between the court and clergy and the parliament. This body, which had heretofore done little except to register the edicts of the king, was now at open issue with the high church party, and sometimes with Louis himself. Remonstrances were poured in against Jesuitism and taxation, and the refractory members were often arbitrarily committed to prison. It was finally broken up entirely, and the members exiled to different parts of the kingdom. The duc de Choiseul, prime minister, who refused to lend his influence to the court party, was deprived of office, and banished to his country-seat.

The dauphin and his wife, and the queen, had died in rapid succession, and the son of the former, now heir to the throne, was in 1770 married to Maria Antoinette, daughter of the empress of Austria. The king continued to be entirely devoted to sensuality, and Madame du Barry, his latest mistress, held complete control over his political action. On the 10th of May, 1774, in the midst of the humiliation and discontent of his kingdom, he expired of the small-pox, in his sixty-fifth year, after a reign of fifty-nine years.

Nature had gifted this monarch with singular personal advantages. He had a handsome countenance and a royal demeanour, but his intellect was narrow, and he was during the greater part of his life a slave to sensuality. No court in Europe exhibited such undisguised and oriental licentiousness. His seraglio, entitled the "Parc au Cerfs," was the scandal of Paris itself, not easily alarmed on the score of decorum. He left an embarrassed treasury, a wide-spread discontent among all classes, and a state of great indigence, suffering, and disaffection among the entire labouring classes.

CHAPTER VII.

THE HOUSE OF BOURBON CONTINUED.—LOUIS XVI. AND THE REVOLUTION.

THE young king, at his accession to the throne, was twenty years of age. He was naturally feeble-minded, though conscientious; and his education had been rather that of a monk than a king. The count de Maurepas, an aged and astute politician, was appointed minister; and Turgot, an enlightened financier, was placed over the treasury. He at once brought forward a plan for relieving the people of their excessive and exclusive taxes, and for distributing a portion of the burden among the clergy and nobles, each of which bodies held a third of all the property in the kingdom. So great, however, was the opposition of the privileged classes, that he and his friend Malesherbes, also an enlightened statesman, were expelled from office.

Not long afterwards, the celebrated Necker was appointed in his place, who, by a system of continual borrowing, kept the apparatus of government, for a time, from stoppage. A new quarrel soon commenced with England. The French ministry had for some time entertained the project of assisting the North American colonies in their struggle with the mother-country; La Fayette and other men of distinction had already entered their service; and in 1778, the victory of Saratoga decided the court to enter into a treaty, acknowledging their independence. War with England followed as a matter of course. In 1779, an alliance was formed with Spain, and England beheld for the first time in an hundred years the channel scoured by a hostile fleet, and her sea-ports threatened with invasion. They failed, however, in a demonstration against Gibraltar, and several ships were captured by Rodney. A French army and fleet were despatched to the assistance of the Americans, and aided them in achieving important successes. The surrender of the British under Cornwallis, at Yorktown, in 1782, decided the event of the struggle. After gaining further advantages, in April, 1782, the French fleet of thirty-four sail, under the Count de Grasse, encountered that of Rodney in the West Indian seas, and after a desperate fight, was utterly

defeated, with a terrific loss of life. In the same year, a most formidable attack was made upon Gibraltar by the combined French and Spanish fleets. After a long and tremendous cannonade on both sides, the floating batteries, constructed for the siege, took fire, and the fortress, by its natural strength and the valour of its defenders, compelled its assailants to retire.

In 1783, treaties of peace were signed by the conflicting parties; the independence of the United States being acknowledged, and certain colonies being rēceded to France and Spain.

Maurepas was dead, and Necker out of office; the treasury was empty, and Calonne, who filled the place of the latter, as a last resort, assembled the "notables" or privileged orders. Showing them the condition of the public finances, he proposed that they should share the burden of taxation. His plan was defeated, and, partially for good reasons, he was driven from office; but the agitation for reform increased. It soon became evident that the "states-general," whose meeting was continually dreaded by government, must be convoked. The king, by dismissing unnecessary officers, and rēforming his court, sought, as far as possible, to avert the coming storm. The duke of Orleans, the king's cousin, an ambitious and unprincipled man, secretly encouraged insurrection. He was banished from Paris; but throughout the provinces, the people offered resistance to the troops of government. In this extremity, Brienne, the minister, as a last resort, in 1788, convoked the states-general. Having done this, he retired from office, and Necker again came into power.

It was decided that the deputies from the "third estate" or people should equal in number that of the nobility and clergy united. The two latter, by their selfish obstinacy, had heretofore defeated all efforts for the relief of the kingdom, and justly dreaded the day of reckoning which approached. On the 4th of May, 1789, this assembly, perhaps the most important of all national conventions, in its influence on the destinies of mankind, came together at Versailles. Public expectation was raised to the highest pitch; distress and famine kept the lower classes constantly on the verge of insurrection, and the money and secret influence of Orleans fomented the disturbance. The question was first raised, whether this numerous body, consisting of twelve hundred members, should act and vote in common, or each order separately. The privileged classes insisted on the latter. After long disputes and ineffectual attempts at adjust-

ment, the commons took the bold and decisive step of assuming the entire legislative power to themselves, and forthwith commenced their action under the title of the "National Assembly." The most distinguished man in this celebrated body was Mirabeau, a noble by birth, but an ardent advocate of popular rights. He had himself been a victim to the infamous system of "*lettres de cachet.*" By these atrocious missives, which were simply orders from the king for the indefinite imprisonment of any person in the realm, hundreds had passed their lives in dreary and hopeless confinement—the influence of any person of high rank being generally sufficient to consign an obnoxious relative or inferior to a dungeon. Burning with revenge and patriotism, this great orator came to the assembly. The clergy, overawed by the daring movement of the commons, suffered themselves to be absorbed among them; but the assembly, enraged at their accidental exclusion from the hall, (which was being prepared for a *royal sitting*,) adjourned to a tennis court, and there took a solemn oath never to adjourn till they had provided a constitution. By the influence of the courtiers, headed by the Comte d'Artois, (afterwards Charles X.) the king was induced, at the "*sitting*" referred to, to use harsh and menacing language. This increased the obstinacy of the deputies and the popular indignation. The king was compelled to follow the counsel of Necker, the popular minister; many of the nobility, led by the duke of Orleans, joined the assembly; and finally, on the 27th of June, the three "Estates" sat together in the same hall.

It was too late. The populace, seeing the effect of their clamour, commenced to overawe the assembly, and successfully resisted the military rule. Numbers of foreign troops had been assembled at Versailles; and during a confused affray between the royal guards, the Germans, and a popular procession, blood was spilled. On the 14th of July, the people, who had supplied themselves with muskets and artillery from a public magazine, marched in great force to the Bastile. This gloomy pile, for so many years the chief dungeon of the French monarchs, was defended by a very small force of troops. The guards, with which the municipal authorities wished to rēplace its garrison, themselves joined in the attack; the prison was seized by the insurgents, and the commander, de Launay, was murdered. At this alarming step, the Comte d'Artois and his party fled precipitately from the country which their pride and obstinacy had thus involved in a civil war.

This event was received with transports of joy by the liberal party, and did much to conciliate and satisfy even the most desperate. La Fayette, a man of known probity and moderation, was placed at the head of the national guard, and did his best to effect a reconciliation of the people and the sovereign. The former were assured that the court perceived the justice of their cause, and for a brief period all was confidence and good feeling. The tri-coloured cockade, composed of red and blue, the colours of Paris, and white, that of Bourbon, was every where adopted. Still, considerable turbulence, instigated, it is supposed, by Orleans, occasionally burst forth; and the populace hanged up to the lamp-post two obnoxious officers of the revenue.

In the provinces, much greater violence prevailed; and many châteaux of the nobility were plundered and burned by the peasants, who thus revenged the accumulated wrongs and oppressions of many centuries. To conciliate these, feudal abuses were abolished by the assembly. The nobles and clergy also made a voluntary and open sacrifice, though too late, of all their privileges and exemptions. During two months of comparative quiet, which followed, the assembly was occupied in providing the basis of a constitution. Necker exhibited the miserable condition of the public finances, and some of the ultra reformers proposed to cut the Gordian knot by a national bankruptcy—a measure defeated by the eloquence and honesty of Mirabeau. Meanwhile, the constant agitation had caused a great scarcity of provisions, and the ignorant multitude could find but one remedy—to proceed to Versailles, and demand bread of the king. An imprudent military demonstration of the court inflamed this discontent into phrensy. On the 5th of October, a vast rabble led the way to Versailles; the national guard, which La Fayette was compelled to lead, came next; and half Paris followed in their train. On the same day, as if by previous concert, Robespierre and other violent revolutionary leaders started up, with fierce accusations of Mirabeau and others of the constitutional party. Immense numbers soon surrounded the assembly and the palace, demanding bread. Some violence occurred, and the king's body-guard was compelled to retire. During the night, through the culpable negligence of La Fayette, who had charged himself with the protection of the royal family, a band of ruffians broke into the palace, slaughtered a number of the guard, who tried to oppose them, and rushed with fury to the chamber of the queen, who was excessively unpopular. She

very narrowly escaped, and any further violence was prevented by La Fayette. The king and queen, the latter of whom showed unshaken courage, were compelled to accompany this vast mob to Paris; the heads of their unfortunate guards being borne on pikes before them.

For more than a year, tolerable quiet prevailed. The duke of Orleans had been compelled to retire, and the assembly proceeded with rash precipitancy in the work of reform. The vast amount of ecclesiastical property was appropriated to the state. France was divided into departments. The judiciary was remodelled, and titles of honour were abrogated. A class of violent republicans, however, refused to be satisfied even with these sweeping measures; and in the convent of the Jacobins (from which their party took its name) a formidable club was organized to change the government entirely.

Mirabeau, who had heretofore been the staunchest supporter of popular reform, saw the danger toward which too precipitate legislation was hurrying the state, and used his powerful influence to retard further action; but this great man, who might, if he had lived, have saved France from the excesses which followed, expired from a disease of the heart, produced by long-continued excitement.

Louis now meditated an escape from his enemies, and resolved to join a camp of royalists on the frontier. On the night of the 19th of June, the royal family secretly left Paris, and travelled rapidly to their destination; but, when they arrived at Varennes, were recognised, and compelled, by a decree of the assembly, to return. The anxiety of the people to retain the persons of their monarch and his family, was principally caused by the belief that they might be held as hostages in the approaching war which was menaced by the emperor of Austria and other European powers. An act suspending his royal functions was forthwith passed, and dethronement became commonly agitated. A collision soon occurred between the people and the authorities, in which La Fayette, commanding the troops, dispersed a formidable body of insurgents, killing or wounding some hundreds of them. On the 30th of September, 1791, the assembly, having presented their constitution to the king, and seen it solemnly approved by him, dissolved itself, declaring its members ineligible to future election.

The constitution was weak and impracticable in itself; and in the new "legislative" assembly its hearty supporters were completely

outnumbered by the Girondists or moderate republicans, and the Jacobins or anarchists. The newly-elected assembly met on the 1st of October, and a dispute with the monarch commenced almost instantly. Laws directed against the priests, who were endeavouring to excite revolt, and the emigrants, who had assembled in arms on the frontier, were passed, and met with an imprudent veto from the king. This rash and impolitic act was received with fury by the republicans. France was menaced with invasion from abroad and conspiracy at home; and their rage at being defeated in these necessary measures, produced a desire for a complete change of government. The emperor haughtily demanded that France should rêtrace her revolutionary career;—the assembly at once replied by a declaration of war (April, 1792).

At first the French arms sustained some reverses—a circumstance that emboldened the court to persist in its refusal of the obnoxious laws, and of another for the formation of a "federal" camp near Paris. Enraged at their disappointment in regard to the latter, the people every where armed themselves with pikes, for the double purpose of resisting an invasion and intimidating the court. On the 20th of June, forty thousand of the populace, thus armed, assembled, with Santerre, a brewer, at their head. After defiling, by invitation, through the assembly, they marched to the palace of the Tuileries. Rushing up the grand stair-case, they found the monarch, with a very few attendants, and demanded his assent to the decrees which he had rejected. The king, who displayed the greatest calmness and courage, presented himself before this immense and tumultuous assemblage, and replied, "This is neither the time nor the place." To please them, he joined in the popular cry, "Vive la nation," and put on a red cap, the badge of the Revolution. By the efforts of the Girondists, who began to be alarmed at the spirit they had conjured up, this formidable assemblage finally disbanded.

La Fayette, a firm adherent to the constitution, on learning the perils and degradation of the monarchy, left his forces, and hastened to the capital. The assembly, to which he complained, gave him no satisfaction; and he then repaired to Louis, and offered his personal assistance and support. This the king, who disliked him personally, refused, and soon found himself left unsupported by a single man of influence or talent. He likewise rejected an alliance with the Girondists, who, awed by the menacing attitude of the people, began to see the necessity of supporting the executive.

The troops from the provinces, distinguished (especially the Marseillais) by their ultra revolutionary feeling, had thronged to Paris; and dethronement was the universal cry. Circumstances increased the popular agitation. The national guard, to which moderate men looked with some hope, was worsted in a contest with the Marseillais. The infamous manifesto of the duke of Brunswick, proclaiming a savage retribution for any insurrection against the king, soon reached Paris, and added to the popular fury. The clubs openly petitioned the assembly to abolish the monarchy. The king, though aware of the approaching storm, now refused to fly.

On the 10th of August, by a preconcerted plot, the revolutionary party, summoned by the tocsin, gathered from all quarters, and formed into columns for attacking the palace. Only a single regiment of Swiss, a few royalists, and some of the national guard, without a leader, were all that could be opposed to the immense force of the insurgents. The queen snatched a pistol from one of the attendants, and entreated Louis to inspirit his men by personal action. But his character was not suited to the occasion; his appearance rather dispirited than encouraged his forces; and, deserted by all, except the Swiss, the royal family, with great difficulty, took refuge with the assembly.

Meanwhile, some of the Swiss had been massacred by the ferocious pike-men, and their comrades fired among the assassins. A general action was thus brought on, in which, after a desperate defence, the greater part of the Swiss and royalists were slain. The mob had lost three thousand of their number. The assembly, overawed by this demonstration of popular force, immediately suspended the king from his office, voted the summoning of a national convention, and recognised the usurped authority of the new municipality of Paris. The government was intrusted to a ministry, composed of Girondists and Jacobins. The latter, at whose nod the populace stood ready to take up arms, now felt their power, and pushed their measures accordingly. Their chiefs were Marat, a blood-thirsty fanatic, Danton, a rough, brutal and talented demagogue, and Robespierre, a selfish, cold-blooded and remorseless seeker for power and popularity.

The municipality, which they controlled, now commenced a system of dictation to the assembly, and usurpation of legislation to themselves. At their dictation, couched in the most insolent terms, a resolution was passed, constituting an arbitrary criminal tribunal, composed of one member from each section of the city. The enemy

were advancing into the kingdom, and Paris itself might soon be in their hands. The citizens, inspired by the fierce courage of Danton, prepared for a desperate resistance; and with a horrible feeling determined that, if defeated by their enemies, the royalists at least should not enjoy the triumph.

For some time, the prisons had been crowded with unfortunate persons, committed by the tribunal on suspicion of royalism. Every means were taken to stimulate the ferocity of the rabble, and assassins were hired by the leaders of the Jacobins. On the 2d of September, a report was spread that the enemy was in full march for Paris. The tocsin sounded, and a horrible massacre, preconcerted for some time, commenced. The first victims were upwards of two hundred priests; and, breaking into the prisons, the assassins continued their murderous work nearly all night, occasionally refreshing themselves with wine. The number who perished in this second "day of St. Bartholomew" has been estimated at thirteen thousand.

Much of the atrocity justly attributed to the Revolution was provoked by the haughty and imprudent tone of Austria and Prussia, who had menaced France with condign punishment, if certain events should occur—the surest method, with a jealous and excited people, of hastening their accomplishment. Thus it proved in the present instance. Paris, threatened with the horrors of military license, took bloody and instant revenge on all whom she considered friendly to her foes. A fresh massacre of prisoners soon occurred at Versailles.

Meanwhile, Dumouriez, the French commander, exhibited great skill and courage in repelling the enemy, who had already invaded the country. The duke of Brunswick and the Prussians were repulsed at Valney, and the Austrians were driven from Lille. The latter, twenty-five thousand strong, were totally defeated by Dumouriez, at Jemappes, with a loss of six thousand men. Louis Philippe, son of Orleans, and since king of the French, distinguished himself in this action. Belgium was immediately occupied by the victors.

The "National Convention" had assembled on the 20th of September, and was composed of three parties—the Gironde, which took its name from that of the department represented by several of its members—the furious Jacobins, called "The Mountain," and the neutral party, who bore the appellation of the Plain. Its first act was to abolish royalty and the existing system of judicature. A

fierce quarrel between the Mountain and the Gironde, destined to end in the utter destruction of the latter, soon commenced. The Gironde, composed principally of men of talent, virtue, and classic enthusiasm, proposed a law for the prevention of massacres and the protection of the Convention. Danton, Robespierre, and Marat were denounced as the instigators of the late sanguinary proceedings and the projectors of fresh outrages. They, however, defended themselves with such art and audacity as to avert the danger, and secure themselves a greater influence in the Convention.

Their power and their principles were soon manifested in the treatment of the king and his family. These unfortunate persons were removed from the palace of the Luxembourg to the Temple, treated with much indignity, and finally separated. The more furious Jacobins now began to demand the trial and execution of the king. The Revolution was felt to be incomplete, unless, like that of England, cemented by the blood of a king. Besides, violence against royalty was regarded as the most conclusive token of patriotism; and the vile bidders for popular favour strove to outvie each other in the indignities and insults offered to their helpless prisoners. Robespierre first suggested the proposal to the assembly, and soon afterwards moved a resolution, which was passed, for his trial before the Convention.

On the 11th of December, 1792, the unfortunate monarch, bearing himself with calmness and dignity, was placed at the bar, and spoke in vindication of his reign. Counsel was allowed him, and on the 26th, an able and eloquent defence was submitted to the Convention. On his withdrawal, a furious debate commenced, and was continued on the following day—Robespierre and the Mountain demanding instant execution; and the Gironde vainly opposing them. The final vote was not taken until the 16th of January, and, in the mean time, fear of popular violence had induced many to join the more sanguinary party. The vote for the execution passed by a small majority, the duke of Orleans, (now Philip Equality,) to the surprise and horror of all, giving his voice in its favour. On the twenty-first, the king was conducted through a vast multitude to the scaffold, and after a few sentences, declaring his innocence, and forgiveness of his enemies, was beheaded.

The monarch, who was thus judicially murdered, would probably, in better times and under better influences, have made an excellent and popular king. He was, without doubt, sincerely desirous of

ameliorating the condition of his people; and, if he had possessed more firmness of character, might have succeeded in accomplishing this object, without permitting the horrible scenes which followed. He owed his death to the evil counsels of his Austrian queen, to the injudicious and violent conduct of his friends abroad, and to the fury of a populace exasperated by former wrong and intoxicated with present triumph.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE CONVENTION, AND THE REIGN OF TERROR.

DISORDER rapidly increased. Provision was scarce, and a famine threatened the city. Moreover, news daily came of the success of the enemy, and the discomfiture of the French troops on the frontier. In March, 1793, the Convention, overawed by a ferocious mob, which had been excited by the Jacobins, instituted a fresh tribunal to receive denunciations and punish the enemies of the republic. The Gironde grew weaker and weaker. They had calculated on the support of Dumouriez; but that officer had already engaged in a quarrel with the Convention, had refused to obey its summons to betake himself to Paris, and "carry his head to the tigers," and had finally been compelled to take refuge with the enemy. La Fayette, who had some time before been forced to abandon France, was a prisoner in the dungeons of Olmutz. This defection of the once popular general, was alleged against the Gironde, who vainly strove to retort the accusation upon the fierce and influential Danton. The provinces, nevertheless, generally supported the former, whose able and eloquent leaders, Vergniaud, Barbaroux, Brissot, and Condoret, had made a more favourable impression on the popular mind than their blood-thirsty adversaries. The insurrection of La Vendee and other disturbances gave the more violent party strength to pass a law, afterwards productive of terrific consequences—that of empowering the municipal authorities all over the country to seize upon the suspected. Meanwhile, the Austrians continued successful; La Vendee, espousing the cause of royalty, was in full and formidable insurrection; and the populace, still overawing the Convention,

demanded vengeance on the moderates. On the 1st of June, a great and well-organized mob, led by the infamous Henriot, surrounded the Convention, and demanded, haughtily, the exclusion of the Girondists. The deputies, after vainly attempting escape, were kept close prisoners until they voted the arrest of thirty prominent members of the obnoxious party.

Some of the proscribed leaders escaped to the provinces, and met with a general support from the people. Remonstrances poured in to the Convention, and forces began to be levied against the anarchists. Though proceeding from a real majority, these demonstrations were at once suppressed by the quicker and more resolute movements of the ultra revolutionists. The assassination of the odious Marat, by a young enthusiast named Charlotte Corday, only endeared his memory and his sanguinary system to the populace. Taking advantage of the public indignation at the advance of the allied armies, and the surrender of Toulon to the English, the "Committee of Public Safety," directed by Robespierre and Danton, now in effect usurped the supreme power. While the latter fiercely sought, by almost unlimited impressment and seizure of property, to provide for the national defence, his more savage and cowardly colleague glutted the rabble with fresh "batches" for the guillotine. The queen, after an odious mockery of trial, shared the fate of her husband, preserving her courage and haughty demeanour to the last. Vergniaud and a number of eminent Girondists soon followed. The beautiful and accomplished Madame Roland, Bailly, mayor of Paris, the duke of Orleans, and crowds of others also passed under the axe.

In the provinces, the ferocious agents of the Convention exceeded all former horrors. At Bourdeaux, Arras, and Marseilles, the guillotine and other instruments of death were kept in full operation. At Lyons, which had resisted, six thousand were slain, and an attempt was made to demolish the city entirely. In the midst of these domestic horrors, the republican armies, animated by a nobler zeal, resisted the enemy with antique heroism. Austria, Prussia, Spain, and England were now all in arms against France, and all were destined to be defeated. Toulon, held by an English garrison and fleet, was closely besieged, and the enemy were finally compelled to evacuate it, having first destroyed the French fleet and magazines. This result was chiefly due to the military skill of Napoleon Bonaparte, a young Corsican officer of artillery, who repaired the mistakes and disasters of his insufficient employers.

This man, whose name is the most celebrated in history, was born in Corsica in 1769, and at this time was twenty-four years old. He had been educated in the royal military school, at Brienne, and from early youth had been distinguished by his talent and untiring industry.

The Convention had now completely succumbed to the "Reign of Terror." It was the mere instrument in the hands of Robespierre and his colleagues, and its members sought eagerly the highest benches of the Mountain, in order to gain the reputation of ultra-republicanism. Danton, however, who, with all his sensuality and ferocity, was not destitute of human feeling, became weary of this scene of bloodshed, and retired into the country. A scandalous farce was next enacted at the capital. The archbishop of Paris, with other of the apostate clergy, openly renounced Christianity, and joined in worshipping the goddess "Reason," who, in the person of a well-known actress, was enthroned at the church of Notre Dame. Robespierre, however, set his face against atheism, and at his instance, the leading anarchists, whose power he dreaded, were sent to the guillotine (24th of March, 1794). He was also jealous of Danton, who wished to stay the effusion of blood; and this "bold bad man" was suddenly arrested, with several of his party, and lodged in prison. "Fool!" he exclaimed, "I alone could have saved him." When arraigned before the tribunal, and asked, according to form, his name and residence, he haughtily replied: "My dwelling will soon be annihilation; my name will be found in the Pantheon of History." They were all despatched to the never-failing guillotine, which had received so many of their victims before them. The last relics of the nobility and royalty soon followed them; and to these succeeded crowds of nuns, taken *en masse* from their convents to be butchered, or of peasant women from La Vendee. The Princess Elizabeth, sister to Louis, perished at this time, when the murderers, for want of victims, sought their prey among the weaker and more helpless sex. Still greater atrocities were perpetrated in the provinces; great numbers suffered in the "*fusillades*," despatched by cannon and musketry, and greater still in the "*noyades*," where thousands were taken in hulks to the midst of rivers, and then drowned by scuttling the vessels. These horrid scenes occurred in many parts of the country.

Robespierre now endeavoured to found his power upon some surer and more reputable footing than that of mere massacre. He

was not fond of blood, like those of his colleagues who butchered for amusement or from mere ferocity—but simply regardless of it. In superseding the functions of some of these wretches, he excited their anger, and a secret conspiracy was formed for his overthrow. Artful reports were circulated, to the effect that he had a list of proscription including half the Convention. This body, which for some time had tremblingly obeyed his commands, took the alarm, and gathered courage from despair. The situation of the tyrant at this time has been aptly compared to that of the buccaneering chief, who, descending the river Orellana with a party of his crew, slew one after another, through jealousy, until the remnant, to save their own lives, took that of their ferocious commander. Perceiving the danger, he organized a fresh insurrection, which, at the critical moment, might break forth in his favour, and then addressed the Convention in a speech of many hours, recounting his services, and denouncing his opponents. Some defended themselves; others pressed him to name his enemies. It is probable that if, at this moment, he had demanded the heads of a limited number of his most dangerous foes, the majority, to save their own, would have complied. But he refused, and the members, each thinking his own name might be on the fatal list, drew closer together in self-defence.

On the following day, the 27th of July, Tallien, Billaud, and other powerful orators, launched unmeasured denunciations against the dictator. For a long time, phrensied with rage and despair, he vainly endeavoured to be heard. "President of assassins," he screamed in the harshest tones, "for the last time, I demand liberty of speech." It was denied him, and a decree was unanimously passed, ordering his arrest, and that of four of his companions. The keepers of the prisons, however, refused to receive them, and Henriot, with his gens d'armes, rescued them, and conveyed them to the Hotel de Ville. Even now, had a man of true action been among them, these villains might have come off triumphant, and resumed their sway; but the night was passed in vain consultation; their forces gradually dispersed; and in the same night they were captured by a party of soldiers in the interest of the Convention. Robespierre vainly attempted to despatch himself with a pistol, but was reserved for the guillotine. Sentence of outlawry had already been passed against the chiefs of the Terrorists, and on the next day, 10 Thermidor (28th of July), twenty-one in number, they left their heads in the Place de la Revolution, where so many worthier victims had

perished before them. An immense crowd witnessed their fate with exultation; Robespierre was executed last, and the axe descended upon him in the midst of tremendous applause. Thus ended the "Reign of Terror."

CHAPTER IX.

THE CONVENTION AND THE DIRECTORY.

THE leaders of the new movement, still embarrassed by the violence of some who had aided them, and dreading unpopularity, adopted only by degrees a milder policy. The worst agents of the Terrorists were sent to the scaffold, amid universal satisfaction. Their "suspected" victims in the prisons, who for a long time had beheld the guillotine in daily view, were gradually discharged. This humane and rational movement was greatly aided by the Parisian youth, who, neither suspected of royalism, nor degraded by the crimes of the Revolution, now played an influential part in restoring order and the refinements of life. By their aid the Jacobin club, so long the focus of insurrection and the instigator of massacre, was closed.

The few surviving members of the Gironde were recalled; and the desire for domestic peace began to be half-realized. But a formidable circumstance embarrassed the restorers of order. The late government, which, though hated, was universally obeyed, had compelled the producers and holders of provisions to furnish them to the citizens at low prices. The terror of death removed, they refused compliance with the edicts, and the capital was again menaced with famine. Moreover, the remaining Terrorists, foreseeing their fate, incited the rabble to fresh insurrection. In the spring of 1795, the cry for "bread" was resumed and riots recommenced. These were at first suppressed by the youth, who always stood forward as supporters of order; and in April, in the midst of a violent popular demonstration, the leading anarchists (Billaud-Varennes and others) were condemned to transportation. The people, who tried to rescue them, were defeated by the troops of the Convention, after a sharp action.

On the 20th of May, however, a large and furious mob surrounded the assembly, defeated its guard, and murdered one of the members. The President, Boissy D'Anglas, exhibited the most heroic courage; but the populace gained the complete ascendancy; and the remains of the Mountain, supported by them, passed a series of violent popular decrees. The same night, however, the members gathered a force, expelled the mob, annulled the decrees, and ordered the arrest of the Mountainists. The "Thermidoriens," (as the assailants of Robespierre called themselves) were now completely victorious. The Fauxbourg St. Antoine, long the head-quarters of insurrection, threatened with bombardment, submitted, and gave up its cannon. The leading Jacobins were seized, and six of them condemned to death. On hearing their sentence, one stabbed himself with a knife, and passed it to his companions, who all followed his example. Only one or two survived long enough to be guillotined. In the provinces a heavier retribution awaited the vanquished party. In Lyons and many other places, those who had supported the "Reign of Terror," were massacred in great numbers by the indignant people.

Meanwhile, the arms of France had been almost every where successful. The royalist insurrection of La Vendee was suppressed with terrific loss of life, in the winter of 1793–4. Carnot, a fierce and sanguinary republican, but a patriotic and able minister of war, planned an effective campaign in Flanders. The Austrian, Prussian, and English forces, amounting to two hundred thousand men, were defeated, or outgeneralled by Jourdan, Pichegru, and Bernadotte, and forced to retire. Flanders and Holland were soon overrun, and all west of the Rhine was ere long in possession of the French. Spain, Prussia, and other states were now willing to sign treaties of peace. England alone still maintained an attitude of uncompromising hostility; and Austria, supported by her subsidies, consented to continue the war. This course, which Pitt, the English minister, thought proper to pursue, was dictated by national pride and jealousy. Hatred of republicanism, and a dread of its increasing power and influence, were also powerful motives with a tory court and ministry. Luckily, their ability was inferior to their wishes. An expedition of emigrant royalists which was despatched to Quiberon, to commence an insurrection, was defeated with much loss by General Hoche, and the unfortunate prisoners were executed as traitors to their country.

In spite of these successes, the Convention was excessively unpopu-

lar. It had been deeply implicated in the worst scenes of the Reign of Terror, and thus was obnoxious to all moderate men; while, by receding from the worst fury of the Revolution, it made enemies among the anarchists. Into the three years during which it had held control of the nation, was crowded an immense amount of tyranny, bloodshed, and suffering; and all classes apparently longed for a more trustworthy government. A new constitution had been decreed, by which authority for the future was to be vested in a council of five hundred members, and another of two hundred and fifty, called the "Ancients," with five directors for an executive. It was also voted that the present Assembly should select from its own body two-thirds of the ensuing legislature. These measures were submitted to the army and to the primary assemblies of the people, and approved by both—artifice and collusion being probably used in the latter. The more respectable citizens of Paris, composing the national guard, approved the new constitution; but, indignant at seeing this body of selfish demagogues perpetuate their power in such an arbitrary manner, took up arms to oppose them. General Menou, who was first employed against them, effected nothing, and the fall of the Convention seemed inevitable. At this juncture, a few words from Barras, afterwards the chief of the directors, decided the fate of France. He said to his colleagues: "I have the man for you—a little Corsican officer, who will not stick at trifles."—Bonaparte, to whom he alluded, had been in disgrace and unemployed since the fall of Robespierre, with whose brother he had been intimate. Glad of an opportunity to regain the confidence of government, he accepted the command of five thousand regular troops, which the Convention had at their disposal. On the 6th of October, the citizens, vastly outnumbering his force, made an attack on the Convention; but his plans were laid with such judgment, that after suffering severely from a fire of artillery, they were dispersed, and fled. The Convention, triumphant over its enemies, on the 26th played the farce of a dissolution.

It came together, with the addition of two hundred and fifty newly-elected members, in October, 1795, and the latter number was selected from the more aged to form the council of "Ancients." Five directors, all regicides, were appointed—Barras being the principal. The condition of the country, and of Paris especially, was wretched in the extreme. Famine was impending; the government had no funds; such a vast number of *assignats* (amounting to

nineteen thousand millions of francs) had been issued, that the currency was utterly disordered. A forced loan was made, and fresh penal laws enacted against the opposers of government. The reign of brutality and blood was nevertheless over. The daughter of the unfortunate Louis was delivered to her friends. The young heir to the crown (Louis XVII.) had already perished of ill-treatment. The executive, possessing tolerable unity, and backed by a standing force, firmly maintained its position.

From this period, the history of France is almost merged in that of Napoleon. In March, 1796, he married Josephine, widow of Viscount Beauharnais, and at the same time received command of the army of Italy. The effect of his military genius was soon apparent. The Austrians, under Beaulieu, were defeated in a single week at Montenotte, Dego and Millesimo; they lost ten thousand men in battle, and fifteen thousand prisoners; all Piedmont submitted, and the road to Italy lay open to the French armies. The officious instructions of the Directory met with short and peremptory replies from the young general. Pursuing his march, he found the Austrians posted at the bridge of Lodi, which they raked with thirty cannon. Despite this tremendous fire, a large column of grenadiers, led by the bravest of his generals, rushed upon it, and after much loss defeated the enemy. The last disposable force of Beaulieu was thus routed and dispersed.

On the 14th of May, Napoleon entered Milan in triumph, and levied heavy contributions of money and valuable paintings upon that and other cities. His Austrian opponents were soon expelled from all Italy, except Mantua, where they were besieged. Rome, dreading his approach, purchased his clemency by a great sacrifice of money and works of art.

These achievements had been accomplished in a single month by forty thousand men. In Germany, an hundred and fifty thousand, commanded by Moreau and Jourdan, had been for some time cautiously contending with disadvantage, against an equal number, led by the Archduke Charles and General Wurmser. The latter, after the misfortunes of Beaulieu, was appointed to command the new army of Italy, which was increased to sixty thousand men. The French general was besieging Mantua, when tidings came of the defeat of Massena and Guyeux, who were left to oppose this fresh enemy. He raised the siege instantly, and taking advantage of the separation of the Austrians, defeated them in succession at

Lonato and Castiglione. Wurmser, with the remainder of his forces, retreated into the Tyrol.

The siege of Mantua was resumed, and in September the Austrians, renewing the campaign, were again defeated at Roveredo, Colliano, and Bassano. Wurmser, with fifteen thousand men, the remains of his army, took refuge in Mantua, and the siege was formed for the third time. The successful general began legislating for the conquered districts; and a portion of Italy, liberally inclined, was formed into the "Cisalpine Republic."

Austria, undisheartened, sent a fresh army, under Marshal Alvinzi, who, reinforced by the relics of Beaulieu and Wurmser, marched toward Verona, repulsing all attempts to retard him. Napoleon, with outnumbered and wearied forces, was almost in despair, and resolved on a desperate effort. With only thirteen thousand men, he crossed the Adige, and endeavoured to surprise the enemy in the rear; but failing in this, was engaged for three days in a fiercely-contested battle at Arcola. The bridge and causeway leading to that town were occupied by the Austrian forces; and the fire was so tremendous that the French were repulsed in repeated attacks. To animate his troops, Napoleon seized a standard, rushed on the bridge, and planted it with his own hand. After being exposed to the greatest personal danger, he succeeded, on the 17th of November, in completely defeating the enemy. Alvinzi lost eighteen thousand men, and retired into the Alps.

In spite of these manifold defeats, another Austrian army was enlisted, and placed under his command. On the 14th of January, 1797, he made a powerful attack on the forces of Napoleon, which were posted on the heights of Rivoli. The Austrians met with a determined resistance, and were utterly routed. Provera, who, with another division, had attempted to relieve Mantua, was also defeated; and finally that city itself, after a long and gallant resistance, was compelled by famine to capitulate. The papal forces, which had moved in favour of Austria, were routed at Imola; and the Pope was compelled to purchase peace by fresh sacrifices of treasure and art. "Thus terminated the first campaign of Bonaparte; the most brilliant in modern history, considering the armies and the empire conquered, and the unequal numbers with which this was achieved."

The Directory, elated by these advantages, would listen to no terms of peace, either with England or Austria; and Bernadotte, with thirty thousand troops from Germany, was ordered to effect a

junction with Napoleon. Early in March, 1797, the latter crossed the Alps, defeating the archduke at the Tagliamento. Town after town was taken, and in a fortnight the victorious army had advanced within twenty-four leagues of Vienna. But the promised rëinforcements did not arrive; and Napoleon, wisely cautious of attempting too much, proposed an armistice, which was signed at Leoben in April. He took advantage, however, of certain massacres committed on the French, to suppress the ancient oligarchy of Venice; which, after an existence of twelve hundred years, changed her government to a democracy, and submitted entirely to the will of the conqueror.

While these splendid successes continued abroad, the Directory, a majority of which were short-sighted demagogues, was excessively unpopular at home. Another third of the council, according to the constitution, was elected; and thus gave a majority over the Directory to the moderates. The royalists also began to agitate, and supported the latter. Barras, Reubel, and Lepaux, a selfish, unprincipled majority of the former, had hitherto ruled the country; and determined to try military force before resigning their power. Napoleon, who owed his elevation to their patronage, despatched Augereau, an able general, to assist them. They resolved on the same course which Cromwell had tried so successfully on the English parliaments. On the 4th of September, Augereau, with his forces, surrounded the councils at midnight, and then, and on the following day, arrested a great number of the majority. Seventy of the most distinguished were arbitrarily transported to the deadly climate of Cayenne. Every where, the favourers of a rëaction were seized, and exiled from the country. The Jacobin minority, which remained, conferred almost despotic power upon the directors, and the reign of terror seemed about to revive. They cancelled two-thirds of the national debt; and rejected honourable terms of peace with England and Austria. Napoleon, however, was resolved to have his own way with the latter, and accordingly entered into negotiations. Cobentzel, the Austrian plenipotentiary, interposing vexatious delays, the enraged victor dashed to the ground a splendid porcelain vase, exclaiming that he would thus shatter the empire, unless instant peace was concluded. Terrified into terms, the Austrian submitted; and the treaty of Campo Formio was signed, by which Austria, as some recompense for her losses, basely took possession of her ancient ally, the state of Venice.

The triumphant young general, returning to Paris, was received

with the highest honours. He soon perceived the incapacity and unpopularity of the present rulers of France, and doubtless cherished ambitious schemes for his own advancement. But, to use his own expression, "the pear was not yet ripe;" and after some futile preparations for the invasion of England, he conceived the idea of attacking that power in her Indian possessions, and of forming an Eastern empire for himself. An expedition to Egypt, as the most vulnerable point of attack, was resolved on; the Directory were glad to get rid of one whose influence they were beginning to dread; and the funds for the undertaking were on a frivolous pretext extorted from the small and defenceless state of Berne. Twenty-five thousand men, mostly veterans, and officered by distinguished generals, four hundred transports, and fifteen men-of-war, composed this splendid expedition, which sailed from Toulon on the 19th of May, 1798.

Taking possession of the island of Malta on its way, the expedition reached Alexandria on the 1st of July, and marched to Cairo. The Mamalukes, under Mourad Bey, fought desperately at the "Battle of the Pyramids," charging the immoveable squares of the French with the most reckless impetuosity; but were utterly defeated, and vast numbers of them perished on the field, or in vainly attempting to swim the Nile. At the same time the French fleet, in the Bay of Aboukir, was defeated and almost destroyed by that of the English, under Admiral Nelson.

The enlightened and legislative mind of Napoleon soon established a better government in Egypt than that unhappy country had known for centuries; but he was recalled to military action, in 1799, by the hostility of the Turks. Marching across the desert, he took the port of Jaffa by storm, and cruelly massacred several thousand prisoners, who had surrendered. He then laid siege to Acre, which was defended by the ferocious Pasha Djezzar (the Butcher) and assisted by the English fleet. After many desperate assaults, in which the flower of his army was destroyed, he relinquished the hopeless undertaking, and returned to Egypt. In July, a Turkish army of eighteen thousand men, commanded by Mustapha Pasha, landed at Aboukir. The French commander immediately gave them battle; and, charged by the cavalry of Murat, they were utterly defeated, twelve thousand perishing on the field and in the neighbouring sea. The remainder surrendered. Mustapha was brought before the victor, who courteously said that the sultan should be informed of the valour he had displayed, although defeated. "Spare thyself the

trouble," replied the haughty Turk; "my master knows me better than thou canst."

Having accomplished this, the French commander resolved upon returning to France, where his own interests and those of the republic alike seemed to demand his presence. The directors, by practically annulling the freedom of elections, had added to their unpopularity. They had increased the enmity and jealousy of foreign powers by dethroning the Pope, and revolutionizing and overawing the neighbouring countries. A coalition between Russia, Austria, and England was formed for the purpose of humbling the French republic. The court of Naples moved first, but was defeated, and compelled to fly from the kingdom, which was constituted into the "Parthenopean republic." To defend France from her powerful opponents, whose forces amounted to three hundred thousand men, a conscription was now, for the first time, levied throughout the country. Jourdan, one of their ablest generals, was defeated, and compelled to cross the Rhine. Scherer, in Italy, met the same fate, and yielded his command to Moreau, whose skill and capacity came too late to save Italy. On the banks of the Trebia, Macdonald was defeated by Suwarrow, with terrible slaughter, in a battle which lasted for three successive days. Massena, in Switzerland, had been compelled to retreat, and the English and Russians invaded Holland.

These and other reverses so weakened the government that three of the directors were compelled to resign. They were succeeded by others, who, by forced loans and extended conscriptions, sought to carry on the government with vigour. The gallant young Joubert, who was next sent against Suwarrow, was on the 15th of August, 1799, defeated at Novi, and died on the field of battle. All Italy was thus lost to the French. In Holland, however, the British, under the duke of York, had been compelled to evacuate the country; and at Zurich, Massena had given a terrible defeat to Korsakow and his Russians. Suwarrow was compelled to retreat over Mount St. Gothard, with a loss of two-thirds of his force.

At this crisis, Napoleon, after a perilous passage, landed at Frejus, on the 9th of October. He hurried to Paris, meeting on the way all the evidences of wretched misgovernment. On his arrival, though affecting seclusion, he was continually surrounded by nearly all who had influence in the state or the army. The "pear" was evidently ripe; but he would have been contented at this time with a place in the directory, which, however, the foolish incumbents of the

executive refused him. He immediately resolved on a more important step and a higher elevation.

Nearly all the officers in Paris were strongly in his interest. The subtle Abbé Sieyes, and Ducos, one of the directors, were in league with him. On the 9th of November, he held a general levee of the military chiefs. The Council of Ancients appointed him to command the troops of the capital. To a message from the Directory, he haughtily retorted their incapacity and the misfortunes of France. Barras, persuaded by Talleyrand, resigned. Sieyes and Ducos voluntarily did the same. Gohier and Moulins, who were refractory, were arrested. The Directory thus set aside, Napoleon harangued the Ancients, asserting the worthlessness of the constitution, and his intention of reforming the government. He was received with applause, and went to try his eloquence with the more obstinate "Five Hundred." Here, however, he was received with fury, and nearly lost his life in their hands. Rescued by his grenadiers, he would have been immediately outlawed, but that his brother Lucien, who was President, refused to put the vote. The latter, leaving the assembly, declared it dissolved on account of the violence of its members. This decision was immediately enforced by Murat with a company of grenadiers. With fixed bayonets they cleared the hall, the members escaping through the windows, and leaving their "togas" (worn in imitation of Rome) torn among the bushes.

The same evening, the Ancients, with a few of the Five Hundred, assembled, abolished the Directory, and appointed a provisional executive of three consuls in its stead.

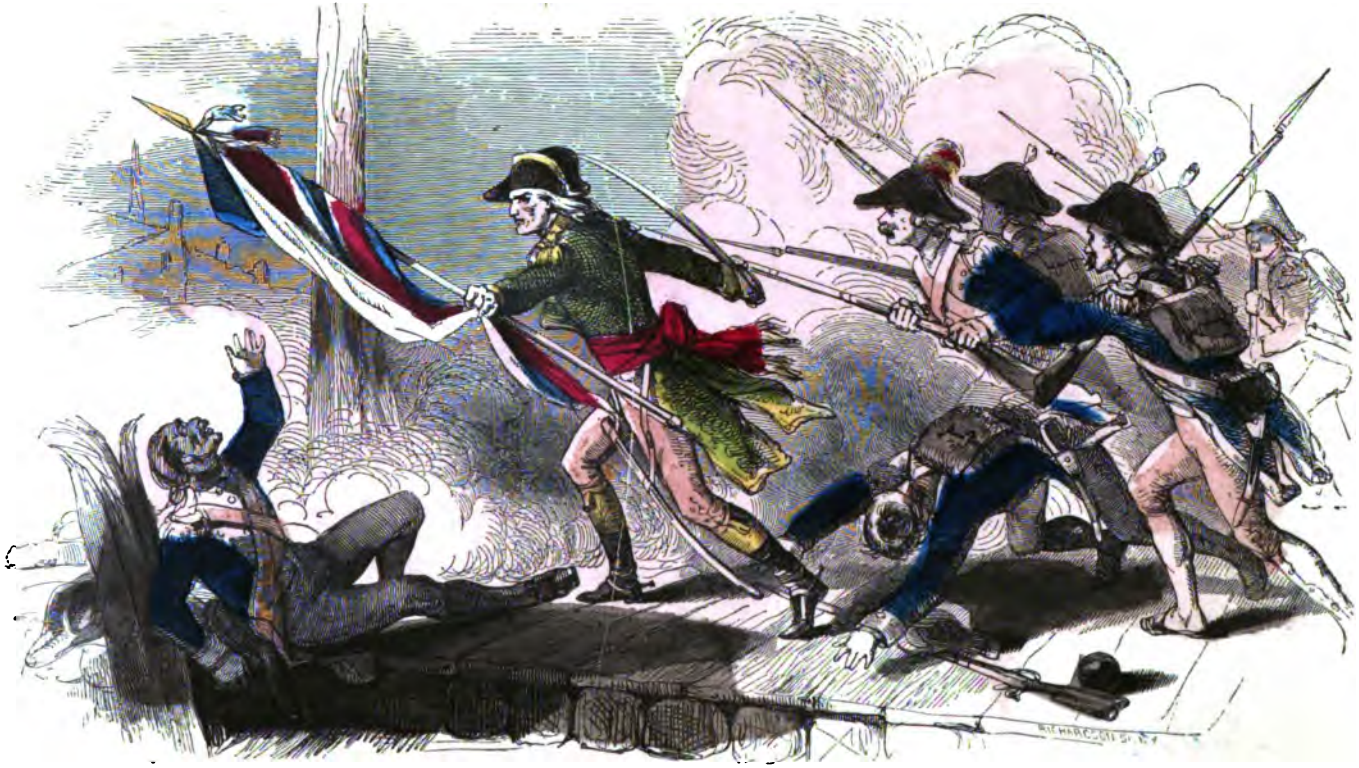
CHAPTER X.

THE CONSULATE.

NAPOLEON, Sieyes and Ducos, were appointed provisional consuls, and directed to prepare a constitution. The plan of Sieyes for a "grand elector," with only the shadow of authority, was instantly rejected by the former. "What man of spirit," said he, "would

THE BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS, JULY 21, 1798.

IN WHICH THE MAMALUKES, UNDER MOURAD BEY, WERE UTTERLY DEFEATED BY THE FRENCH ARMY



NAPOLEON LEADING HIS TROOPS UPON THE CONTESTED CAUSEWAY AT THE BATTLE OF ARCOLA

consent to fatten like a pig on so many millions a-year?" He then produced his own scheme. Three consuls were to be appointed, the first, however, alone being intrusted with power. He was to name a senate, and that a tribunate, all the members of both being appointed for life, and receiving handsome salaries. This almost absolute system was presented to the people in their primary assemblies, and sanctioned by nearly four million votes—so great was the popularity of Napoleon and the disgust at the excesses of the Revolution. Assured in office, as First Consul, with Cambacérès and Lebrun as nominal assistants, with Talleyrand as minister of foreign affairs, and Fouché as chief of police, the new dictator entered the palace of the Tuileries, and commenced his legislative career.

England and Austria unwisely refused the peace which he offered; and he soon saw the necessity of retrieving the reputation of France by another splendid campaign. To blind the enemy, he quietly assembled a strong force at Dijon, under the title of the Army of Reserve, but in reality destined to recover Italy. On the 6th of May, 1800, the first consul left Paris; and on the 20th, with an army of forty thousand men, made the celebrated passage over Mount St. Bernard. In this remarkable exploit, like Hannibal, he contended with the greatest obstacles, caused by cold, snow, and the difficulty of the ascent. At any unusually difficult passage, the drums would sound a charge, and the troops, dragging their cannon in wooden sheathes, surmounted the obstacle. He entered Italy, and the Austrian general, Melas, could hardly credit the report. Several towns of Northern Italy were immediately taken. Genoa, however, after a brave defence by Massena, had already fallen, and the officers of Melas pushed on in pursuit of the French. They were, however, completely defeated by Lannes, at Montebello, with a loss of five thousand men. Napoleon, fearing lest his opponents should escape, took up a disadvantageous position at Marengo, and on the 14th of June, being surprised by them, was almost defeated. Half his army was in retreat, when he was reinforced by Dessaix, and, planting a strong battery, resisted the approach of the enemy. Exposed to a tremendous fire, and charged furiously on either side by Dessaix and Kellerman, they were broken, and completely defeated. Dessaix fell by a musket-ball in the heat of the action.

Austria, after this decisive victory, readily listened to terms of peace. By the conditions of an armistice, all the conquests of Suwarrow were abandoned, and Napoleon returned in triumph to

Paris. Nevertheless, the defeated nation, after the expiration of this, resumed hostilities in Germany. The Archduke John, who commanded there, was, however, utterly defeated by Moreau, at Hohenlinden, and Austria then signed a treaty as favourable to the French as that of Campo Formio.

The first consul, on the 25th of December, narrowly escaped assassination. An "Infernal Machine," prepared by certain furious royalists, was exploded near his carriage. Eighty persons were killed or wounded, but the chief object of this atrocious design was unhurt. This defeated attempt strengthened his hands, and enabled him to suppress the remains of Jacobinism, and gain more full and irresponsible authority. He now resolved, it is probable, upon rëorganizing a monarchy, and, as an important auxiliary to government, rëestablished, with the sanction of the Pope, the Catholic church, in union with the state. To the remonstrances of the Revolutionists, he replied: "I was a Mahometan in Egypt, and I will be a Catholic here, for the good of the people." On Easter Sunday, 1802, a solemn *Te Deum* at Notre Dame commemorated the rëinstallation of the Romish hierarchy. Napoleon attended, and his generals, with covert sneers, were compelled to do the same.

The British, unable to assail their foe in any other quarter, had despatched an expedition to Egypt, under General Abercrombie. Taking Malta on its way, it arrived; and the French, after suffering a defeat, capitulated, on condition of being transported to their country. The consul, meanwhile, made great preparations at Boulogne for an invasion of England; and though it may be doubted if he seriously intended it, great alarm was occasioned to the enemy. A peace, however, was concluded at Amiens, in March, 1802, by which the French were to rëgain Malta and other important possessions, and agreed to evacuate Southern Italy.

In May, Napoleon was declared by the legislative body first consul for life; he had already been chosen president of the Cisalpine Republic. Piedmont was annexed to France, and her preponderant power in Southern Europe was otherwise plainly exhibited. The English ministry, jealous of this increasing dominion, scandalously broke the treaty so lately signed at Amiens. They refused to surrender Malta and the Cape of Good Hope, alleging the most frivolous and untenable pretences. A furious paper warfare was also kept up between the presses of the two nations, and Napoleon had the folly to enter it in person. He was, nevertheless, sincerely desirous of

peace, and met the insolent demands of the British government with moderation and temper. England, however, in May, 1803, declared war, by laying an embargo on French vessels, and issuing orders for the seizure of French colonies. To revenge this perfidious surprise, Napoleon detained all British subjects who chanced to be within the jurisdiction of France. He also immediately occupied Naples, and took possession of the electorate of Hanover, pertaining to the British sovereign. Russia remonstrated in vain, and Prussia, tempted by the offer of Hanover, was half-inclined to enlist in the cause of the favourite of fortune. The Emperor Alexander, of Russia, succeeded, however, in detaching her from his interests; and the "continental system," excluding England from all the ports of Europe, could not yet be fully effected. Napoleon now seriously turned his thoughts to the invasion of England; and a powerful army and flotilla were assembled at Boulogne.

In the year 1804, a formidable conspiracy of the royalists was detected. Moreau, who was deeply implicated, was compelled to go into exile. General Pichegru and Captain Wright, an Englishman, two of the accused, were found mysteriously dead in their prisons. Georges Cadoudal and others, whose object had evidently been assassination, were publicly tried and executed. During the progress of this discovery, Napoleon committed a most violent and arbitrary act. The young duc d'Enghien, a member of the royal family of Bourbon, was seized in a neutral territory, where he was probably awaiting the results of the conspiracy at Paris, was hurried to Vincennes, tried by a court martial on the charge of bearing arms against France, and immediately executed. This cruel and unlawful act was caused by Napoleon's anger at the repeated schemes for his assassination, and his wish to alarm the contrivers of conspiracy.

The defeated project only increased his power. The senate, under pretext of ensuring the perpetuity of government against such attacks, passed a decree on the 18th of May, 1804, creating him "Emperor of the French," and leaving the question of hereditary right to the people. This was confirmed by a vote of only three millions to two; the republican spirit being yet predominant in many parts of France. Court officers, bearing the titles of the *ancient regime*, were also created; and seventeen of the principal generals were declared marshals of France. The army at Boulogne, to which the emperor presented himself, hailed his elevation with enthusiasm. The Pope himself proceeded to Paris for the

purpose of crowning the successor of Charlemagne. The ceremony took place on the 2d of December, with great magnificence, in Notre Dame. Napoleon, however, taking the crown from the pontiff, placed it on his own brow, and that of Josephine on her's. He was then solemnly consecrated by the Pope, and listened to a sermon, in which his Holiness compared himself to Samuel, and the new emperor to David.

CHAPTER XI

THE EMPIRE.

ALMOST immediately on his accession to the throne, the emperor was menaced with fresh hostilities. England, emboldened by the support of Russia, openly and piratically seized upon the vessels of Spain, a nation with which she was at peace, but which was supposed to be secretly in the interest of France. This produced an alliance between the two latter countries, and encouraged the hopes of Napoleon, that their united fleets might yet dispute the empire of the seas with their common enemy. A fresh defeat, however, soon proved their inferiority. In the spring of 1805, he received the title of "King of Italy," and the "iron crown" of Charlemagne. Genoa and other important places were added to the empire. Although his attention was now apparently absorbed by the great preparations at Boulogne, he was well aware, from the menacing attitude of the northern powers, that the field of battle lay in another direction; and he secretly planned campaigns against the threatened coalition.

In April, 1805, England, Russia, Austria, and Sweden concluded a hostile alliance against him—Prussia, like the bat in the fable, hovering between the two interests, and waiting the event to espouse that of the victor. Napoleon vainly endeavoured by negotiation to avert the storm; but learning that the Austrians had occupied Munich, the capital of his ally, gave orders for the formidable "Army of England" to march toward the Rhine. A splendid triumph was the result. Mack, the Austrian General, with his whole

army, was shut up in Ulm, and compelled to capitulate. Sixty thousand men, two hundred pieces of cannon, and eighty stand of colours were taken. In a campaign of fifteen days, the Austrians were expelled from Bavaria. The usual ill-fortune of France, however, awaited her at sea. On the 21st of October, the day after the surrender of Ulm, the combined French and Spanish fleets were defeated and almost annihilated by Nelson at Trafalgar.

Pursuing his conquests, Napoleon marched into Austria, and, on the 15th of November, entered Vienna in triumph. The emperors of Russia and Austria, with eighty thousand men, had rallied at Olmutz: their opponent, with one-fourth less, determined to give them battle. As the enemy approached, he used the most artful manœuvres to convince them of his weakness, and that he meditated a retreat. His imperial rivals, yet inexperienced in the art of war, fell completely into the snare, and by attempting to surround him at Austerlitz, and prevent his escape, materially weakened their lines. On the 2d of December, the "sun of Austerlitz" rose with unclouded splendour. So certain of victory did Napoleon feel, that in a printed order, he informed his troops of the probable manœuvres of the battle. It befell as he anticipated. The Russians, attempting to cut off his right, were charged and dispersed. At Austerlitz, however, the French were repulsed, and were pursued by the Russians, until General Rapp, by a brilliant charge, restored the day, and, after a desperate conflict, routed the Russian Guard in presence of its emperor. Attempting to retreat over the lake, a terrible event added to the destruction of the vanquished. The ice giving way, precipitated thousands into a watery grave. Ten thousand were slain, and the effective force of the allied army was reduced to one-half.

After this disaster, Alexander retired to his dominions: Austria received reasonable terms from the victor; and Prussia, whose ambassador had arrived just before the battle with a menacing message, (changed by the event into a congratulation,) was terrified into resigning a portion of her dominions. Hanover, however, belonging to her ally, the king of Great Britain, was allotted to her as some compensation. New kingdoms were parcelled out in Germany to support the influence of France. From his newly-acquired territories in Italy, the emperor formed principalities and dukedoms for his favourite generals and a few eminent civilians. His brother Joseph was made king of Naples and Louis, another, king of Holland.

His power, in reality, now extended over all Southern Europe: Austria, Spain, and Germany submitting completely to his dictation. Prussia, however, which had greedily accepted Hanover, was alarmed by learning that Napoleon had offered to restore it to England, as a condition of peace. The "Confederation of the Rhine," by which Napoleon, emulating Charlemagne, became the feudal master of Germany, was a source of yet further trouble and jealousy; and in August, 1806, the court of Prussia madly resolved to attack the power which had humbled the imperial armies of Austria and Russia. In September, they invaded the territories of some of the smaller states, and in a bulletin imperiously warned the French to quit Germany altogether. Napoleon, with his customary fondness for paper warfare and personality, answered with another, ridiculing the queen and court. Marching on the Prussian army, by an able manœuvre, he cut them off from their country and their supplies.

On the 14th of October, two decisive actions took place within a short distance of each other. At Jena, the Prussians, under Prince Hohenlohe, engaged the main body of the French, under Napoleon himself; they were utterly routed, and compelled to fly. At Auerstadt, Davoust found himself compelled to contend against the chief part of their army, three times his own number, and commanded by the king and the duke of Brunswick. Formed into squares, the French infantry resisted repeated charges of cavalry, led on by Blucher. The duke of Brunswick and the king, who succeeded him, were equally unsuccessful; and finally this valiant and audacious infantry charged in their turn, broke the enemies' lines, and drove them in mingled confusion with the fugitives of Jena.

This victory decided the fate of Prussia. On the following day, Erfurt, with one hundred pieces of cannon, and fourteen hundred men, surrendered to Murat. The column which commemorated the defeat of the French at Rosbach, by Frederick the Great, was sent to Paris; and the sword, star, and colours of that hero shared a similar fate. On the 27th, Napoleon entered Berlin, where he conducted himself in all respects as the absolute master of the destinies of Prussia. Indeed, the whole kingdom was in his hands. Nearly every fortress and important town had surrendered, and King Frederick had fled beyond the Oder. Feeling himself now master of nearly all the ports of Europe, he issued the celebrated "Berlin decrees."

Alleging as his pretext the numerous violations of national law committed by England, he declared that country in a state of block-

ade, and attempted entirely to destroy her commercial intercourse. In an attempt so vast and difficult, he met with a thousand obstacles, the natural current of trade, like that of water, insinuating itself through every crevice and loop-hole of his system. Nevertheless, it succeeded to such an extent as greatly to enhance the price of nearly all foreign commodities, and dangerously to lessen his popularity.

From Berlin he proceeded to Warsaw, and was received with exultation by the Poles, who hoped, with his assistance, to revive their nationality. This question, however, he kept in studied abeyance, meanwhile recruiting his forces from the enthusiastic youth, which flocked to his standard. In January, 1807, he took the field against the Russians, who still kept up hostilities. He pursued Beningsen, the Russian commander, as far as Eylau, where he halted, and drew up in order of battle. The forces on each side were about equal. After a murderous engagement, the Russians were retreating, when rëinforced by a body of Prussians, under Lestocq. The engagement was renewed, but without any decisive result. A terrible slaughter had taken place; and Beningsen, having maintained his ground in the battle, was compelled on the following day to retreat.

Both armies now waited for rëinforcements, and, after some indecisive actions, met at Friedland on the 14th of June, the anniversary of Marengo. The Russian general, with the greater part of his army, had passed the bridge at that place, to attack the forces under Ney. Napoleon, with his whole disposable force, hurried to his assistance, and assailed the Russian army in this critical and disadvantageous position. Separated by the bridge, and exposed to a heavy cannonade, varied with charges of cavalry, they were finally routed and dispersed by the infantry. Thousands perished in attempting to swim the river, and still greater numbers were slain on the field. Further advantages followed, and Napoleon was soon able to vaunt, in a proclamation to his soldiers, "in ten days' campaign, you have taken one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon; killed, wounded, or taken sixty thousand Russians," &c. &c.

This important victory instantly brought the Russian emperor to terms. On the 25th, the two sovereigns met upon a raft in the Niemen, and were soon on terms of the greatest intimacy and friendship. The unfortunate monarch of Prussia, arriving as a suppliant, and deserted by his ally, was compelled to acquiesce in the harshest terms. His share of Poland was erected into the independent duchy of Warsaw. All his territories west of the Elbe were taken from

him. An enormous contribution was levied on his kingdom to defray the expenses of the war. Out of nine million subjects, he was permitted to retain only five. French garrisons were kept in several of his most important fortresses. He was compelled to shut his ports against England. Jerome Bonaparte became king of Westphalia—his kingdom being composed of territory conquered mostly from Prussia. Napoleon also, with great want of magnanimity, indulged in much personal abuse and vituperation of the defeated nation.

Alexander was now completely won by the personal fascinations and ambitious views of his ally, and was inspired by similar designs for his own aggrandizement. A grand scheme, comprising the conquest of a great part of the world, was discussed at Tilsit, and secretly adopted. Napoleon was to commence with Spain, and Russia with Sweden and Turkey. Europe was already, in their imaginations, dismembered and divided between them. Circumstances peculiarly favoured their views. England had now nearly the whole continent against her. By the piratical expedition against the capital and fleet of Denmark, she had aroused the indignation of all civilized nations. Only her superiority at sea, and her insular position, had hitherto preserved her from invasion. Sweden and Portugal alone continued commercial intercourse with her; and to suppress that of the latter, General Junot was despatched in October from Bayonne with thirty thousand men.

In this hour of almost unlimited power and glory, the decline of Napoleon may be said to commence. He suppressed the tribunate, the last vestige of the revolution; decreed the establishment of hereditary titles; and increased the limits of the conscription. In the latter part of 1807, he kept six hundred thousand soldiers under arms. A far nobler and more useful occupation, that of forming his celebrated "Code," at this time also engaged his attention.

The condition of Spain was, at this period, almost as weak as possible. The king, Charles IV., was ruled by his queen, and she by her favourite, the notorious Godoy, styled "Prince of the Peace." The latter connived at all the ambitious schemes of the emperor upon Portugal. Junot had hardly entered the Portuguese territory before the royal family put to sea, and took refuge in Brazil. Their kingdom was quietly occupied by the French general. A second and third army crossed the Pyrenees, and early in 1808 a large part of the disposable forces of France were already in Spain. Meanwhile,

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

Born at Ajaccio in Corsica, August 15th, 1769 First Consul of France, 1799 Emperor of France, 1804 Emperor of Elba, 1814 Emperor of France, 1815 Exiled to St Helena, October, 1815 Died May 5th, 1821.

Oh, more or less than man—in high or low,
Battling with nations, flying from the field,
Now making monarchs' necks thy foot-stool, now
More than thy meanest soldier taught to yield,
An empire thou couldst crush, command, rebuild,
But govern not thy pettiest passion, nor,
However deeply in men's spirits skilled
Look through thine own, nor curb the lust of war,
Nor learn that tempted Fate will leave the loftiest star.'

Childe Harold, Canto III. xxxviii

MARSHAL SOULT

NICHOLAS JEAN DE DIEU SOULT, Marshal of France and Duke of Dalmatia, was born at Amans, March 29th, 1769. His father was an obscure notary. His career in the army was distinguished by the most obstinate courage, and by great skill as a tactitian especially in Spain, where he filled the most responsible stations. On the return of Napoleon from Elba, he again espoused his cause, and held a command at Waterloo. After residing some years in Russia, in 1819 he returned to France, and was again created marshal and peer by Charles X. He has held several exalted posts, and until recently, notwithstanding his advanced age, has taken an active part in political affairs.

the besotted king and his son Ferdinand, quarrelling, sought each in turn the favour of Napoleon. The latter despatched a splendid present to the king, and with it orders to his generals to take possession of the most important fortresses within their reach. An insurrection in the capital compelled the king to abdicate in favour of Ferdinand. Murat at once marched upon Madrid, and Ferdinand, vainly thinking to gain the countenance and protection of Napoleon, hastened to Bayonne. The king and queen also arrived, and the two parties mutually pleaded their cases before him; but with such weakness and recrimination, that the emperor, in disgust, resolved to set aside the whole family, and substitute a member of his own. Meantime, the people of Madrid, enraged at the departure of Ferdinand, rose against the French, and massacred numbers, especially of the stragglers and the sick. Murat and Grouchy replied by a wholesale military execution. Charles and Ferdinand, partly by threats and partly by cajolery, were induced to resign their claims to the throne. Napoleon then summoned an hundred and fifty nobles, under the title of the "Cortes," to assemble at Bayonne. The emperor's claim that Joseph Bonaparte should be king of Spain was acceded to by these, and he was forthwith proclaimed; his former kingdom of Naples being assigned to Murat, the brother-in-law of Napoleon.

On the same day that Ferdinand abdicated, Alexander issued a ukase, annexing Sweden to his dominions, and took steps to gain possession of it. His task was an easier one than that of his ally, who had to overcome the resistance of a savagely patriotic nation. When the accession of Joseph was generally known, insurrections and massacres of the French were commenced throughout the kingdom; and, in a short time, native forces of a formidable character were arrayed against them. In the North, under Cuesta and Blake, the insurgent armies were defeated at Rio Seco and elsewhere, with great slaughter; but Dupont, with a considerable force, in attempting to reach Cadiz, was compelled to surrender to them at Baylen.

Similar insurrections broke out in Portugal; and the British government despatched to their assistance a force of fifteen thousand men, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, which in August, 1808, landed in the Tagus. The battle of Vimiero, in which Junot, attacking the British with inferior forces, was defeated, soon followed. By the convention of Cintra, the French were transported, with all their plunder, to their own country.

Austria also, affronted by her exclusion from the treaty of Tilsit, and alarmed at the tokens of a universal empire, meditated the resumption of hostilities, and increased her forces. She was, nevertheless, excluded from the conference of Erfurt, where the two leading powers again discussed and settled the affairs of Europe. Aware of the necessity of suppressing the Peninsular troubles before engaging a fresh enemy, Napoleon despatched his choicest forces to Spain, and early in November, 1808, crossed the Pyrenees in person. The insurgent forces were about an hundred thousand in number; but were so divided as to be easily crushed in succession. Blake was defeated at Espinosa, Belvedere at Burgos, and Castanos at Tudela. The victor immediately pushed on, and took Madrid. The inquisition was forthwith abolished, and the convents were suppressed.

He was driving the British, now a little more than twenty thousand in number, from the Peninsula, when tidings of fresh preparations on the part of Austria reached him, and caused him to hurry northward without a moment's delay. Soult, whom he left in command, pursued the army of Sir John Moore to Corunna, where, on the 16th of January, 1809, previous to their embarkation, a battle was fought, in which the French were repulsed, and the gallant commander of the English was killed by a cannon-shot. The enemy magnanimously erected a monument over his remains.

The Austrian government, resolving upon a *coup de main*, had raised, by incredible exertions, an army of two hundred thousand men, destined to act against France and Italy; and another to keep in check the emperor Alexander. The Archduke Charles, who commanded the former, taking the French by surprise, invaded Germany. Napoleon, hastening, with hardly a Frenchman, to the scene of action, took command of the Bavarians and other friendly forces, defeated the enemy at Ebensberg, and compelled a large division of their forces to surrender at Landshut. Hence, coming to the rescue of Davoust, who was engaged with the enemy at Eckmuhl, he took the Austrian army by surprise in their flank, and gained a complete and overwhelming victory. Davoust was made prince of Eckmuhl on the field; and another astonishing proclamation announced to the Parisians the capture, within a single week, of an hundred cannon, forty stand of colours, and fifty thousand prisoners.

The conqueror once more took the road to Vienna; and on the 12th of May, one month from the commencement of hostilities,

received its surrender. His first act was to issue a decree, affirming the title of Charlemagne, his predecessor, to the states of Rome, and formally annexing them to the French empire, leaving to the Pope his title of bishop and a revenue of two millions of francs. The Archduke Charles, marching through Bohemia, now arrived on the opposite side of the Danube; but all the bridges having been destroyed, it was difficult to effect an engagement. Imitating the movement of Alexander at the Hydaspes, Napoleon passed down to the woody island of Lobau, and on the 22d of May succeeded in transporting, by a temporary bridge, forty thousand of his troops to the opposite bank. A desperate encounter took place in the village of Essling. The French, wanting ammunition, and cut off from supplies by the partial destruction of their bridge, suffered greatly from a fire of artillery, and finally retreated to the island with much loss. In this bloody engagement fell Marshal Lannes, the duke of Montebello, a man of extraordinary bravery, called the "Roland" of the French army. Napoleon, who had trained him under his own eye, was deeply affected by the sufferings and death of this faithful follower, who, to the last moment, deliriously repeated the name of his master, and called on him for assistance. The emperor, despite the great losses which his army had sustained, still stubbornly held his ground, and converted the island into a fortified camp.

On the night of the 4th of July, being reinforced till his army amounted to an hundred and fifty thousand men, he again threw bridges over the river, and crossed it with his forces. On the 6th he attacked the archduke, whose army was strongly posted at Wagram. Several of the ablest leaders of Napoleon had been killed or disabled, and the event of the battle at first seemed favourable to the Austrians. An hundred cannon were, however, brought to bear upon their centre, and Macdonald, charging with the infantry into the gaps caused by the artillery, broke their ranks, and won the day. Twenty thousand prisoners were taken. An armistice was concluded on the 15th, and Napoleon took up his residence at one of the imperial palaces near Vienna.

During this time, events important to his interests had been every where transpiring. The Pope, placable enough till his own interests were invaded, now, using his only weapon, had launched an excommunication at him, and had in consequence been carried off a prisoner. He was regarded as a martyr to the cause of religion, and received the hearty sympathies of the Catholic world. In the Tyrol,

the insurgent mountaineers still held out. The Poles, under Poniatowsky, had been defeated by Austria. England had despatched a powerful expedition to the Low Countries, which, however, proved a complete failure, leaving the bones of half its numbers on the deadly island of Walcheren.

On the Peninsula, Soult, after expelling the British, and overrunning various provinces, was himself repelled from Portugal, in May, by Wellesley, who had returned from England, and resumed the command. The latter, pursuing his advantage, marched into Spain, and with twenty thousand British and thirty thousand Spaniards, under Cuesta, encountered the French, equally strong, at Talavera. They were commanded by Victor, and King Joseph was present in person. On the 28th of July, the attack was commenced by the French in columns, and at one time was almost successful; but owing to the able dispositions of the English commander, and the strength of his position, they were repulsed, and the advantage remained with the allies. Wellesley, however, was compelled to fall back into Portugal.

Negotiations for peace, meanwhile, went on at Vienna. Alexander had shown himself, if not a faithless, yet a lukewarm ally. Napoleon felt the necessity of some firmer union with one, at least, of the great powers of Europe. Moderate terms therefore were granted to the defeated nation, and by secret agreement, the alliance was to be ratified by the marriage of the victor to a princess of the royal house of Austria. Other circumstances had strengthened this conclusion. He had no heirs by Josephine, and the son of Louis, whom he had destined to be his successor, died in infancy. The unhappy empress, after vainly attempting to avert her fate, yielded an apparent consent, and was present at the solemn dissolution of their marriage. She retired to Malmaison; and in March, 1810, Napoleon was married to the Archduchess Maria Louisa, daughter of the Emperor Francis.

MARSHAL LANNES

JEAN LANNES, Marshal of France and Duke of Montebello, was born in Normandy, April, 1769, of humble parentage, his father being a mechanic. By his wonderful daring and impetuosity, he gained the titles of the "Roland" and the "Ajax" of the French army After a career of extraordinary brilliancy and glory, he was mortally wounded in May, 1809, at the disastrous battle of Essling. Napoleon, upon whose name he called deliriously while he survived was affected to tears by the loss of this faithful comrade and servant, whose military genius he had fostered with personal assiduity "I found him a dwarf," said he "I lost him a giant

CHAPTER XII.

THE DECLINE AND FALL OF THE EMPIRE.

THE power and glory of Napoleon had now, apparently, reached their point of culmination. His territories were greatly enlarged, and the firmness and perpetuation of his dynasty seemed to be secured by the new alliance. But various and apparently insufficient causes were gradually undermining the vast structure which nad been reared too hastily and wilfully to be permanent. His arbitrary measures, and, in particular, such as were depressing commerce, had alienated the attachment of great masses of his subjects, particularly those whose interests especially suffered. His army, still by far the most formidable in the world, had lost the early and resistless enthusiasm of the republic, and found its devotion to the person of the emperor an unequal substitute. His generals, incomparable for bravery and military science, were, with few exceptions, more attached to their own aggrandizement and to the spoils they had acquired, than to the views of their sovereign or his personal schemes of ambition.

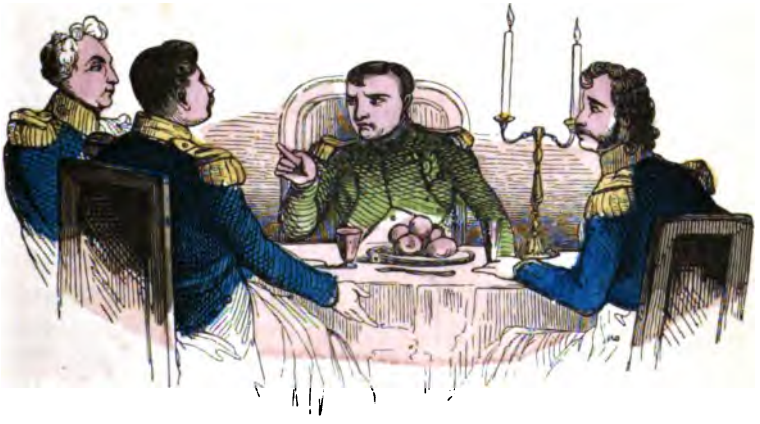
His brother Louis, unwilling to enforce, to the ruin of his subjects, the utmost severity of the continental system, was compelled, by ill-usage, to resign his kingdom of Holland, and to behold it formally incorporated with the French empire. Sweden, which, by the deposition of her monarch, was in search of a sovereign, made choice of Marshal Bernadotte, whom Napoleon, distrusting his friendship, allowed, with much reluctance, to accept the throne. In Spain, Joseph succeeded in 1810 in reducing the revolted provinces; the guerilla or partisan warfare being, however, still continued. Massena, with eighty thousand men, pursued Wellington with thirty thousand British, in Portugal, until the latter, stopping at the almost impregnable "lines of Torres Vedras," opposed an obstinate resistance. After losing a great part of his army by disease, famine, and fatigue, the French commander was compelled to retreat into Spain, leaving destruction wherever he passed. Marmont, who succeeded him, accomplished nothing; and Soult, who in turn took the command, sustained an important reverse at Albuera.

A far more formidable conflict was approaching. Napoleon, who began to see the impolicy of allowing the Russian emperor to annex Turkey to his dominions, had refused even at Erfurt to sanction a plan for the conquest of his ally; and a coldness on the part of Alexander resulted. The occupation of the duchy of Oldenburg, pertaining to a connection of the latter, was a further cause of ill-feeling. The British influence again prevailed at St. Petersburg, and the continental system was abrogated in Russia. Both parties, while carrying on negotiations, made gigantic preparations for the event of war, and concentrated large armies on their frontiers. Bernadotte, who had impudently demanded Norway as the price of his adhesion to Napoleon, was provoked by an invasion of his territories into an alliance with Russia. Turkey kept quiet, and England, of course, continued hostile. But all the remainder of Europe seemed at the disposal of Napoleon in the ensuing contest. France, Italy, Holland, Germany, Prussia, and Austria, were all prepared, some from fear and some from attachment, to place their forces at his command.

Napoleon, it is probable, sincerely wished for peace, but not at the expense of his ambition or his interests. But negotiation, both public and private, proved ineffectual to reconcile the conflicting interests, and early in 1812 war seemed inevitable. The French emperor, in May, held a levee at Dresden, of the various powers whose services he had demanded. Probably so brilliant and august a court was never assembled to do homage to any human being. Among the sovereigns, who "jostled each other in his ante-chamber," might be seen the emperor of Austria, the king of Prussia, and a long array of lesser potentates. "The réunion of Dresden seemed a parting pageant, given to Napoleon by Fortune ere she abandoned him. The richest incense that could be burned to human pride was there offered to Bonaparte." It was evident, however, that he could no longer rely upon the enthusiastic support of those distinguished chiefs who had served him so long and faithfully, and on whose earnest devotion he had hitherto implicitly relied. Having acquired fortunes, and become the masters of families, they were less disposed than formerly to tempt fortune, and greatly preferred the enjoyment of what they had already acquired. At a private supper to which the emperor, then at Dantzic, invited Murat, Berthier, and Rapp, this feeling was plainly expressed. The three generals sat with grave reserve. "I see very clearly, gentlemen," said Napoleon, "that you are no longer desirous of going to war. Murat would prefer

NAPOLEON CROWNING THE EMPRESS JOSEPHINE

"But not even from the Head of the Catholic Church would Napoleon consent to receive as a boon the golden symbol of sovereignty, which he was sensible he owed solely to his own unparalleled train of military and civil successes The crown having been blessed by the Pope, Napoleon took it from the altar with his own hands, and placed it on his brows He then put the diadem on the head of his Empress, as if determined to show that his authority was the child of his own actions"—Scott's Life of Napoleon



THE PRIVATE SUPPER AT DANTZIC

The celebrated Vernet has here depicted the reproachful manner in which Napoleon addressed his favourite generals, on learning their disinclination to further warfare (See page 528)

never again to leave the fine climate of his kingdom; Berthier wants to hunt over his estates at Grosbois; and Rapp is impatient to return to his hotel in Paris."—It was very true. A silence followed, first broken by Rapp, who honestly confessed the fact.

On learning the ineffectual result of his last private embassy, the emperor immediately betook himself to his immense army beyond the Vistula. This gigantic force, probably the most numerous that has ever been collected, was estimated at nearly eight hundred thousand men. The difficulty of supporting such a mass was enormous, and compelled Napoleon to waste upon the *commissariat* that attention which he should have devoted entirely to the campaign. On the 24th of June, 1812, he crossed the Niemen, unchallenged save by a single Cossack, and marched in pursuit of the Russian army. The latter, however, retreated without attempting any defence, and he entered the city of Wilna without opposition. A large force, under Macdonald, kept along the Baltic. The Russians, who, in two large armies, were commanded by De Tolly and Bagration, were divided; an opportunity of cutting off the latter was lost by the insubordination of Jerome, who was, in consequence, sent home in disgrace. For two weeks, the French army, encumbered by its own bulk, and the difficulty of support, remained at Wilna. Napoleon then marched upon Smolensko, and, after a stubborn resistance on the road, and a murderous assault, gained possession of its burning ruins. In despite the remonstrances of his generals, with one hundred and twenty thousand men he pushed on for Moscow, now eighty leagues distant.

Kutusoff had by this time been appointed to the command of the Russians, and, with a somewhat superior force, awaited him at Borodino, on the river Moskwa. On the 6th of September, the action commenced; the Russians being strongly fortified and the French attacking. Several of the French leaders were disabled early in the action, and it was only after three severe battles, Bagration having fallen, that the Russians were beaten from their intrenchments, and compelled to abandon the field. Eight of the French generals fell, and the only trophies of this severely-contested victory were a few broken cannon, and less than a thousand prisoners. Ney, for his heroic conduct, was immediately created "prince of the Moskwa."

The fate of Moscow, however, was decided. On the 14th of September Napoleon entered it, and took up his residence in the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the czars. He did not long enjoy his new

possessions. Fires broke out in several quarters, and on the 17th spread over the entire city. Napoleon with difficulty escaped, and beheld from a short distance this magnificent spectacle, which too truly foreboded the frustration of his schemes. It seems doubtful whether this destruction of the ancient capital of Russia was the work of private incendiaries or of Rostopchin, the governor. It was now evidently impossible for the French army to winter here, as the emperor had intended, and he instantly conceived the daring idea of marching upon St. Petersburg. But his generals, weary of war, would not concur in this audacious scheme: they counselled a retreat: while Napoleon, with apparent infatuation, lingered for a month in the Kremlin, amid the ruins of the city, vainly waiting an answer to his proposals for peace.

On the 19th of October the army, heavily encumbered with spoils, commenced its retreat—that horrible retreat which exhausts all conceptions of human suffering and despair. On the road to Kalouga, a sanguinary engagement took place between a portion of the hostile armies; but the main bodies, under Kutusoff and Napoleon, as yet cautiously avoided each other. The French army, in three divisions, marched toward Smolensko, suffering terribly from cold and famine, and harassed by clouds of Cossacks, who hung upon their rear, and cut off every straggler from the ranks. The trophies and the plunder were abandoned in the deep snow, through which the army could hardly force its way. Arriving at Smolensko, reduced, in effective numbers, to a third of the conquerors of Moscow, they found famine awaiting them, and hostile armies surrounding them on all sides. The conduct of Ney, who commanded the rear-guard, was, during the whole retreat, a miracle of courage, talent, and fortitude. With five thousand men, he kept Kutusoff, with eighty thousand, at bay, and brought his division to Napoleon. The "Grand Army," now reduced to fourteen thousand men, worn out with privation and fatigue, still retreated, seeking to escape the enemy by crossing the Beresina. Meeting by chance the army of Victor, they resolved, thus reinforced, to attempt the passage. Two frail bridges were thrown across the stream, and a portion of the army crossed in safety. During this terrible passage, the Russian army, in overwhelming force, was pressing on their rear. Great numbers were drowned by the breaking of one of the bridges, and by being forced into the water. Their bodies were almost immediately frozen into the wintry stream, and when counted by the Rus-

MARSHAL NEY

MICHAEL NEY, Marshal of France, and Prince of the Moskwa, was born of obscure parentage, at Sarre Louis, in 1770 During the whole of Napoleon's career, he was distinguished by such dauntless valour as to receive from his sovereign the most implicit confidence, and justly to earn the title of the "Bravest of the Brave." His conduct in the terrible retreat of Russia was, perhaps, the most heroic of any which is recorded in history His high military qualities were equalled by his humanity and kindness of heart He led the last charge of the Guard at Waterloo, and on the second return of the Bourbons, was executed by the cowardly rulers who had been reinstated by foreign arms. "Thus," says Col Napier, a magnanimous English historian, "he who had fought FIVE HUNDRED BATTLES for France—not ONE against her—was shot as a traitor"

sians in the following spring, were found to amount to thirty or forty thousand.

Tidings now came of disturbances in Paris; and Napoleon, leaving the relics of his forces to struggle with fresh disasters, departed secretly on a sledge, and hastened, almost in disguise, to his own dominions. The vast army, of nearly five hundred thousand, which he had brought into action, was almost annihilated. It has been computed, by accurate judges, that of this immense force one hundred and twenty-five thousand were slain in battle, one hundred and thirty-two thousand perished from cold and famine, and one hundred and ninety-three thousand were made prisoners. Though many of the national trophies were destroyed, the Russians took seventy-five eagles or colours and nine hundred cannon.

All Europe, taking heart at the misfortunes of its late master, now seemed ready to rise against him. The Prussians, under Yorck, deserted Macdonald. Murat, forsaking the remains of the army intrusted to his charge, fled to his own kingdom of Naples, ere long to betray his master, and join the enemy. Austria and England entered into alliance with Russia, Prussia almost immediately joined them, and the French were compelled to adopt the Elbe, instead of the Oder, as a line of defence. Bernadotte and the Swedes, subsidized by England, joined the hostile alliance.

Napoleon, on his part, made every effort of preparation and defence. To supply the loss of those who had perished in the snows of Russia, the conscription was drawn for years in anticipation. In April, 1813, he joined the army of forty thousand men, which yet remained in Germany, with eighty thousand young conscripts, entirely ignorant of war—"sucking pigs," as an old general termed them, in despair. The allies, in great force, advanced against him, but were defeated, under Blucher, by the courageous youth, whom Napoleon had already inspired with his own hardihood and enthusiasm. He immediately occupied the disputed cities of Leipsic and Dresden. Encouraged by these successes, he refused to accede to the terms of Austria, who now demanded, as the price of her neutrality, a considerable augmentation of territory. At Bautzen, on the 21st of May, he again attacked the enemy, defeated them in a position of great force, and drove them into Bohemia. The Russian and Prussian armies retreated into Austria, and Napoleon, still refusing the demands of the latter, saw his father-in-law conclude a formal alliance with his enemies. Austria had an army

of two hundred thousand men ready for action; the Russian and Prussian armies were reinforced; yet the emperor resolved to hold out at Dresden. General Moreau, long banished for conspiracy, had now entered the service of Alexander, and was directing the enemies of his country, while Bernadotte, with his kingdom, was also in arms against his former master.

On the 21st of August the Austrians, under Prince Schwartzenburg, in overwhelming force, attacked Dresden, which was gallantly defended by twenty thousand French; when Napoleon, returning from the pursuit of Blucher, repulsed them. Two days afterwards, he completely defeated them, with the loss of their cannon and twenty thousand prisoners. Moreau, his ancient rival, was mortally wounded in the action. This advantage was, in a great degree, counterbalanced by the misfortune of his general, Vandamme, who, with his division, was compelled to surrender to a superior force of Russians and Prussians. The allies now pursued a singular system of tactics, recommended it is said by Bernadotte. At the approach of the emperor, they invariably retreated; but when engaged with his generals, put forth their utmost efforts, and frequently ventured to give battle. Thus, Oudinot was defeated at Buren by Bernadotte, and Macdonald by Blucher, at the Katzbach. "The campaigns round Dresden resembled what Homer recounts of the siege of Troy. When Achilles rushed forth, all was rout, fight, and slaughter; when he retired, his enemies showed courage, and never failed to gain the advantage." He was soon compelled, by the increasing forces of the enemy, to transfer his quarters to Leipsic.

On the very day of his arrival (October 16th), the allies, in overwhelming force, began to close around it, but, after some desperate fighting, gained little advantage. On the 18th, the French, attacked by three times their number, made a most gallant defence, and succeeded, amid great slaughter, in maintaining their position. It was, however, evidently necessary to retreat still farther; and on the following day, with nearly three hundred thousand of the enemy pressing upon them, the remains of the French army commenced to defile over a frail bridge that served as their only outlet from the city. With a few troops, Macdonald and the gallant Prince Poniatowsky defended this disastrous retreat. By the premature destruction of the bridge, great numbers perished, and others remained captive in the city. The French army lost, on this terrible day, two hundred cannon and fifty thousand men.

Except the ancient limits of France, little was now left to him who had so lately been dictator of Europe. Holland, Italy, and most of his other dependencies espoused the cause of the enemy. In Spain, the English, under Wellington, had driven the remainder of his troops across the Pyrenees. The allies, in overwhelming numbers, were on the frontiers of France itself, yet Napoleon refused their proposition of making the Rhine his boundary.

A movement, equally formidable to his power, was also commencing within his own kingdom. Both the royalists and republicans had now conceived hopes of his entire overthrow, and laid plans for the substitution of their own systems. Instead, however, of conciliating the opposition, he resolved to suppress it by force, and at once dissolved the feeble legislative assembly, which had ventured to offer a remonstrance.

The garrisons which he had left in Germany were one by one reduced, and, under Bulow and Blucher, the allied forces crossed the Rhine, while Wellington advanced from the Pyrenees. On the 25th of January, 1814, Napoleon left his capital, to defend, with feeble and diminished forces, the empire that yet remained to him. Schwartzenburg and Blucher, with an hundred and fifty thousand men, were already on their way to Paris. The French army was less than half their number, consisting mostly of raw recruits. Nevertheless, the emperor, fighting hand to hand with the enemy, drove Blucher from Brienne, the scene of his own youthful studies and education. On the 1st of February, the latter, reinforced by Schwartzenburg, and aided by the presence of Alexander and Frederick of Prussia, attacked the French at La Rothiere with overwhelming force. After an heroic resistance, the latter were compelled to retreat, under cover of night. The allies now continually rose in their demands, and refused peace, except on condition that France should be reduced to its ancient limits. Napoleon, refusing their terms, hastened, with the wreck of his army, in pursuit of Blucher, who had made a hurried march towards Paris, defeated him at Champaubert and Montmirail, with the loss of two-thirds of his army, and drove him with the remainder in full retreat. On the 18th, he also defeated the Austrians at Montoreau. Schwartzenburg retreated, but Blucher, with a fresh force of an hundred thousand, resolved to effect a union with the Russians, and renew the march to Paris. To defeat this scheme, Napoleon, marching against the Russians, gained, at great loss, a victory at Craonne. At Laon,

however, by the unskilfulness of Marmont, he experienced a severe reverse, and lost such a portion of his force as to render further resistance almost hopeless.

The allies, elated by their success, now refused to treat at all, and from all directions pushed their forces toward the capital. The royalists, also, began to assume a bolder and more open attitude, and Bordeaux, supported by Wellington, declared for the Bourbons. Their partisans in Paris, directed by the astute and treacherous Talleyrand, opened a negotiation with the allied sovereigns in behalf of the exiled family, and gained the support of Alexander. Napoleon, still obstinately defending his country, was defeated, with the miserable remains of his army, at Arcis. Still undismayed, he marched to surprise the allied forces in their rear. Marmont and Mortier, however, who were to have joined him, were compelled by the advance of the enemy to retreat upon Paris, and on the 30th of March, with a scanty force, attempted to defend it from the overwhelming forces of the allies. A gallant attempt to withstand their attack was made, and many of the young pupils of the Polytechnic school died fighting bravely in defence of their country; but resistance was in vain; Paris capitulated, and on the 31st, Alexander and Frederick entered the city.

Napoleon, scarcely able to credit the loss of his capital, again vainly attempted to treat with the victors. But the cause of the Bourbons, supported by a powerful army of foreigners, and by the general weariness of war, prevailed; the senate, convoked by Talleyrand, voted the crown forfeited by various misdemeanours, and appointed a provisional government. The emperor, now almost deserted, made one more appeal for assistance to his marshals, and on their refusal, declared his willingness to abdicate in favour of his son. This offer was refused, and after beholding nearly all his friends and officers desert to the enemy, he signed an unconditional abdication at Fontainbleau on the 11th of April, 1814.

He had utterly refused to stipulate for any terms of personal interest; but by the influence of his former friend, Alexander, the title of Emperor was still secured to him, and the little island of Elba was allotted as the scene of his sovereignty. Thither he repaired, for a few months to exercise his talents in petty schemes and difficulties, until his destiny called him, for a brief period, to figure for the last time in that mightier and more tragical scene, which closed the great drama of the fortunes of Europe.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE RESTORATION OF THE BOURBONS, AND THE "HUNDRED DAYS" OF NAPOLEON.

LOUIS XVIII.,* who had thus been elevated by the arms of foreigners to the ancient throne of his ancestors, was a man of moderate intellect, and more adapted to the life of a retired scholar, than to the sovereignty of a great and impetuous nation. His first accession was, however, eagerly welcomed by a people suffering under the worst calamities of war, and desirous of some interval of rest. The army alone, by its dark and sullen demeanour, evinced dissatisfaction with the change. The manner of his first political act, that of granting a charter to the nation, was unpopular, as recognising its only source in the will of the new sovereign. Discontent was also strongly felt at the reduction of France within her former limits—a misfortune, whether real or supposed, only to be ascribed in reality to him who had enlarged them.

Other and more real grievances soon supervened. By attempting to restore the more bigoted and odious attributes of the church, the court disgusted and alienated the liberal and intellectual. A serious insurrection was excited by the refusal to bury an actress in consecrated ground, and the government was compelled to yield. Restrictions on the press, and the constant dread of the emigrants' resuming their forfeited estates, produced farther discontent and uneasiness. The strange mixture of an ancient and absurd *noblesse*, and of blood-stained revolutionists, which composed the new court and ministry, inspired ridicule and distrust, rather than confidence or respect.

The first reactionary movement was made by the old Jacobin party, which, after being so many years repressed by the strong hand of Napoleon, started into a new and formidable existence under the feebler and more obnoxious sway of the Bourbons. Carnot, the old revolutionary minister at war, now holding an important office,

* The unhappy son of Louis XVI., a mere child, who had perished from ill-treatment during the Revolution, was enrolled by the royalists as Louis XVII.

was at the head of this conspiracy. Fouché, the wily and unprincipled ex-minister of police, was also deeply implicated. But all their projects seemed likely to fall to the ground for want of a leader who could influence the army. After vainly attempting to procure a chief elsewhere, they turned their thoughts to Elba, and commenced negotiations for rēplacing Napoleon at the head of affairs. Important concessions to the republican spirit were, undoubtedly, to be the price of his rēinstatement on the throne. Murat, who still held the kingdom of Naples by a precarious tenure, again opened communications with his brother-in-law, whom he had lately betrayed.

The plot being ripe, Napoleon, on the 26th of February, 1815, embarked from his little island, with a force of about a thousand men, to undertake the rēconquest of France. He landed at Cannes on the 1st of March, and at once commenced his march toward the capital. At Grenoble he encountered a force of three thousand troops, and throwing himself in their midst, was received with the greatest enthusiasm. The government, now thoroughly alarmed, began to take measures for self-defence, and the Comte d'Artois, the king's brother, vainly attempted to harangue into fidelity the troops at Lyons. "You deceive yourself," said an old veteran; "no man here will fight against his father: I will cry *Vive Napoleon!*" The soldiers welcomed and mingled with those of their ancient commander. Here he appointed the ministers of a new government, and on the 13th resumed his march, the troops declaring in his favour wherever he came. Ney, who had gone with a considerable force to intercept him, was won over by a letter addressed to "the bravest of the brave," and forthwith joined him, with all his troops. At Melun, the last army of the royalists, commanded by Macdonald, was posted to repel the invader. Almost unattended, he drove into their midst, and was received with a general shout of "*Vive Napoleon!*"

Louis, anticipating this result, on the 20th of March fled from Paris with a small escort, and succeeded in reaching Ghent in safety. His victorious rival, entering Paris on the evening of the same day, again took possession of the Tuileries, and was welcomed by the principal contrivers of this wonderful conspiracy. "Never, in his bloodiest and most triumphant field of battle, had the terrible ascendancy of Napoleon's genius appeared half so predominant as during his march, or rather his journey from Cannes to Paris. He who left the same coast, disguised like a slave, and weeping like a

woman, for fear of assassination, returned in grandeur like that of the returning wave, which, the farther it has retreated, is rolled back upon the shore with the more terrific and overwhelming violence. His look seemed to possess the pretended power of northern magicians, and blunted swords and spears."

Reinstated on his throne, but holding it by an insecure tenure, he naturally desired peace, as well for the interest of his kingdom as of himself. But the allied powers returned no answer to his overtures; and the "Congress of Vienna," which was still sitting, (to dismember and prey upon the weaker countries,) resolved on unrelenting hostility. Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia agreed that each should furnish an hundred and fifty thousand troops for the approaching attempt to destroy their ancient conqueror. The actual number that was levied exceeded, however, a million.

The position of Napoleon, indeed, appeared almost hopeless, from the commencement. France, exhausted by murderous wars in other countries, was absolutely destitute of the bone and sinew necessary to defend her. The failure of Murat, who, threatened with the loss of his throne, had prematurely taken up arms, and been utterly ruined, was a great blow to the cause of the restored sovereign. His assistance, if deferred a little longer, would have been invaluable. The constitution which the emperor now granted, was objectionable to the liberals, on the ground that (like that of Louis, which it much resembled) it professed simply to emanate from the imperial will, without recognising the authority of the nation. The Parisians, though fond of spectacles, viewed with coldness the splendid pageantry of the "Champ de Mai," which celebrated the organization of the new government. The chamber of peers, mostly composed of his generals or personal friends, was tolerably devoted to the interest of Napoleon; but the chamber of deputies or commons contained a strong infusion of the ancient jacobinical feeling.

The immense armies of the allies were now put in motion, and the whole eastern frontier was menaced with invasion. By desperate exertions, a force for the national defence was raised, and from this Napoleon selected about an hundred and thirty thousand soldiers for his last fatal campaign. The first enemies to be encountered were the English and Prussians, who, with greatly superior forces, seemed to await his attack. After some masterly manœuvres, on the 16th of June he engaged the Prussian force of eighty thousand men, under Blucher, at Ligny. Though superior in number, they

were defeated, with a loss of ten thousand men, and compelled to retreat. On the same day Ney, with a portion of the army, engaged the British at Quatre Bras, but after obstinate fighting, no decisive result was attained. Wellington, however, retreated towards Brussels, and took up his position near the village of Waterloo, a few miles from the city. Napoleon followed him, and on the 18th of June, the two armies, each about seventy thousand in number, encamped opposite to each other. Both were distressed, but especially the French, by the tempestuous weather to which, for some days previous, they had been exposed. The forces under the command of Wellington were composed about equally of British and continental troops. Those of Napoleon were all that remained of that splendid army, so long the terror of Europe. The plan of each commander was exceedingly simple; Wellington being only intent on holding his position until reinforced by Blucher; and Napoleon staking his last hopes on the desperate attempt to destroy the two armies in succession before they could effect a junction.

A little before noon, the action commenced with a furious cannonade, and a desperate attack, led by Jerome, upon the Chateau of Hougoumont, occupied by the British. The latter succeeded in holding this important post. An attack on the English centre was equally unfortunate. The charging columns had penetrated the forces of the enemy, but being attacked on all sides, lost many of their number in the fight, as well as two thousand prisoners, who were surrounded. The British cavalry were, in their turn, repulsed with much loss. They also lost the farm of La Haye Sainte, an important position. On the right, the French cavalry made repeated charges upon the squares of the British, which, however, they were unable to break. In repeating this desperate attempt again and again, the greater part of them were destroyed. The Prussians, under Bulow, had now reached the field, and attacked the French right; and Napoleon, at last aware of the approach of Blucher with an overwhelming force, resolved on a last and desperate effort to destroy the English before he could arrive. The imperial guard, who had been hitherto kept in reserve, were formed into two columns, and ordered to charge the English line. To the exhortations of their sovereign, they answered, for the last time, with cries of *Vive l'Empereur!* and, led by the celebrated Ney, moved on to the attack. The fire which they encountered, however, was too heavy to admit of success, and in spite of the efforts of their heroic leader,

AN OFFICER OF THE IMPERIAL GUARD OF NAPOLEON,

IN FULL UNIFORM

they were compelled to retreat in confusion. The rout now became general, and the flying ranks were fiercely pursued by the army of Blucher, which had just arrived. Great numbers of the defenceless fugitives were slaughtered by the Prussians, yet smarting under ancient and recent defeat. Many deserted or were dispersed, and probably not half of the army then engaged was ever again assembled under arms.

The defeated emperor hastened to Paris, aware that the Jacobins in the assembly would take advantage of the crisis to attempt the overthrow of his government. This apprehension was better founded than his reliance on his own authority. Indeed, it was evident to all, that a second abdication alone could preserve France from the miserable condition of a conquered country. His brother Lucien vainly pleaded his cause before the assembly, and entreated their fidelity. "We *have* been faithful," answered La Fayette; "we have followed your brother to the sands of Egypt—to the snows of Russia. The bones of Frenchmen, scattered in every region, attest our fidelity." In a general council held by the emperor, he reiterated his views, and delicately suggested abdication as the only remedy for the impending evils. The unfortunate sovereign, distracted by various counsels, and unwilling to quit the scene of his deepest interests, could not effect a determination. "The best counsel," says his biographer, "was, perhaps, that of an American gentleman, who advised him instantly to retreat to the North American States, where he could not, indeed, enjoy the royal privileges and ceremonial, to which he was more attached than philosophy warrants, but where that general respect would have been paid to him, which his splendid talents and wonderful career of adventure were so well calculated to enforce." On the 22d of June, only four days after the battle of Waterloo, in compliance with the eager desire of the assembly, he made an abdication in favour of his infant son, the "King of Rome." The deputies, though refusing formally to acknowledge the new sovereign, proclaimed him by general acclamation. Carnot still cherished the hope of resistance, and presented to the assembly an exaggerated statement of the available forces yet remaining. This was furiously contradicted by Ney: "Not a man of the Guard," he cried, "will ever rally again. I myself commanded them—I myself witnessed their total extermination, ere I left the field of battle; they are annihilated. The enemy are at Novelles, with eighty thousand men. They may, if they please, be in Paris in six days. There

is no safety for France, but in instant propositions for peace." When this fiery and determined commander could speak thus, resistance might well be deemed hopeless; yet Napoleon, with an honourable desire to serve his country in the worst emergency, still lingered in the vicinity of Paris, and offered his services once more to meet the enemy, or to defend the capital to the last extremity. These proposals were rejected by the provisional government, which feared to intrust him again with the means of acquiring power. He left Paris, and on the 3d of July arrived at Rochefort, where two frigates had been placed at his disposal to convey him to America.

But the coast was lined with English cruisers; the Bellerophon line-of-battle ship was blockading the port; it was impossible to force a passage; and he would not consent to any plans for a secret escape. In answer to his negotiations for a passage to America, the captain of the English ship suggested to his officers the propriety of his seeking an asylum in England, though refusing to make any definite pledges concerning his reception. Rejecting, therefore, the warlike proposals of the relics of his army, which could only have brought further devastation on France and destruction to themselves, he embarked in the Bellerophon, and on the 24th arrived at Torbay, on the coast of Devonshire. He had already despatched the brief and well-known letter to the Prince Regent, invoking the hospitality of England. It was, however, determined by that mean-spirited prince and his advisers to keep him close prisoner during the remainder of his life. He was transferred to the distant island of St. Helena, where, after a few miserable years, exposed to the annoyances of an impertinent keeper, he expired on the 5th of May, 1821. His remains were interred on the spot; but many years after, in compliance with his will, were transferred to Paris, and deposited, with magnificent and imposing ceremonies, beneath the great dome of the Invalides.

THE FUNERAL CAR,

IN WHICH THE REMAINS OF NAPOLEON WERE CONVEYED TO THE CHURCH OF THE INVALIDES

CHAPTER XIV.

THE SECOND RESTORATION OF THE BOURBONS, AND THEIR EXPULSION.—LOUIS PHILIPPE, AND HIS EXPULSION.—THE REPUBLIC.

THE great actor having vanished from the scene, succeeding events appear comparatively tame and unimportant. After the departure of Napoleon, the provisional government vainly attempted to excite an enthusiasm for the defence of the country. To their exhortations, the soldiers answered sullenly, "Why should we fight any more? We have no longer an emperor!" The royalists, encouraged by the approach of the allies, also made demonstrations in some of the provinces, though not daring to move openly in Paris. Meanwhile, the remaining forces, under Soult and Grouchy, were compelled to retreat upon the capital, whither, on the 1st of July, they were followed by the allied armies. After some fighting, in which the French displayed all their accustomed bravery, an armistice was concluded, and on the 7th, after the city had been completely evacuated by its defenders, the hostile forces took military possession.

The allied powers refused to acknowledge the provisional government or the Chambers, (which accordingly were forcibly dissolved;) and sullenly announced that Louis XVIII. would rëenter his capital. On the 8th he entered, accompanied by some of the most distinguished marshals, and, protected by foreign arms, again took possession of his crown and palaces. Severe conditions were exacted from the defeated nation. Several of her most important fortresses were taken from her, and others held for a time by foreign garrisons. Large contributions of money were exacted, and the splendid museum, the finest in the world, was stripped of its treasures, which were restored to the nations from which they had been originally taken.

The course of the new government, thus again imposed upon the nation, was even more unsatisfactory and irritating to the people. The brave Marshal Ney was privately executed. La Bédoyère, one of the prime supporters of the emperor, shared the same fate. Lavalette was saved only by the devoted and heroic conduct of his wife, who remained in prison while he escaped in disguise. Toward

the close of the year, a general amnesty was proclaimed. The unpopularity of Louis continued. He substituted the white flag in place of the tri-colour, to which the nation was much attached; and, to gratify the ultra royalists, violated, in several particulars, the charter which he had granted. The legislative body became gradually divided into two parties, which, however varying in principle, have ever since retained their appellations. The "extreme right," or ultra royalists, were continually opposed by the "extreme left," or ultra liberals. The moderate party occupied the "centre."

The distracted condition of Spain, so long in a state of civil warfare, determined the French government to interfere with an armed force; and in 1823 the duke d'Angouleme, with a large army, marched into that country, advanced from Madrid to Cadiz, and gratified the national vanity of the French by an appearance of control and dictation in the political affairs of the Peninsula.

On the 16th of September, 1824, the king died, and was succeeded by his brother, the Comte d'Artois, under the title of Charles X. The late king, though sometimes over-influenced by his royalist relatives, was in reality a man of moderate views, and probably sincerely desirous of the welfare of the people. His successor represented the worst class of legitimatists and uncompromising royalists. His first measure was a judicious one. By granting annuities to those whose lands had been seized by government during the Revolution, he assured the title of the possessors, and removed one formidable source of opposition, and the temptation to effect revolutions.

More obnoxious measures succeeded. Further restrictions were placed upon the liberty of the press. To secure a majority in the upper house, a large number of peers was created. The chamber of deputies was dissolved, in hopes that the court influence would be more predominant in the next. The result proved quite the reverse, and the royalist ministers were compelled to resign. The more liberal statesmen who succeeded them, retained office only for a short time; and in 1829 the king appointed a new ministry, at the head of which was the Prince de Polignac, a name odious to the whole nation from the former career of the family which he represented. In March, 1830, the chamber of deputies being found too republican, was dissolved immediately after its meeting, and a new election was ordered, which, however, resulted still more unfavourably to the court.

On the 4th of July, 1830, the city of Algiers, so long a pest to all

civilized communities, was taken by a French force, and the foundation of the important province of Algeria was laid. The success of this expedition, though very popular, could not allay the public irritation, stimulated by further acts of an arbitrary character. Great discontent had been caused by the mean and spiteful attempt of the Bourbons, on their first restoration, to efface every vestige of the glories of Napoleon. His statue had been taken from its lofty column in the Place Vendome, and melted to form that of the horse of Henry IV. His name had been carefully erased from public buildings and monuments. This miserable persecution of a name and a memory was continued even now, so long after the death of its object, and the statues or portraits of the greatest sovereign who had ever ruled over France were proscribed by the petty legitimacy which had been foisted on the throne.

Perceiving the unfavourable prospects of the session, Charles, on the 26th of July, 1830, issued an ordinance, abolishing the freedom of the press, and arbitrarily and against law dissolved the Chambers, which had not yet convened; and appointed, equally without authority, a new mode of election, better calculated to serve his views. The charter was thus entirely subverted, and great agitation ensued in Paris. On the 27th, in spite of the ordinance, numbers of the deputies met, and protested against it. On the 28th they proceeded in a body to the Tuileries, and represented to Marmont, commander of the forces, that the people would forcibly oppose the government. The king ordered him to suppress the popular movement by military force. Meanwhile, tri-coloured flags and cockades began to be displayed, and the old uniform of the National Guard was assumed by many of the citizens. A contest commenced between the people and the king's guard, in which the latter were exposed to a harassing fire and discharge of missiles from the windows. At night barricades were thrown up in the principal streets, and on the following day, after a desperate contest between the troops and the people, the former, with the exception of the king's guard, declared for the popular cause. Several thousands of the citizens had been already killed and wounded. The guards quitted Paris; the obnoxious ministers resigned their offices; and the king repealed his ordinances. It was too late. The people, now thoroughly aroused, were determined on a change of government. The deputies met, and the National Guard, with La Fayette at its head, was called out. His personal influence was such that the city was almost

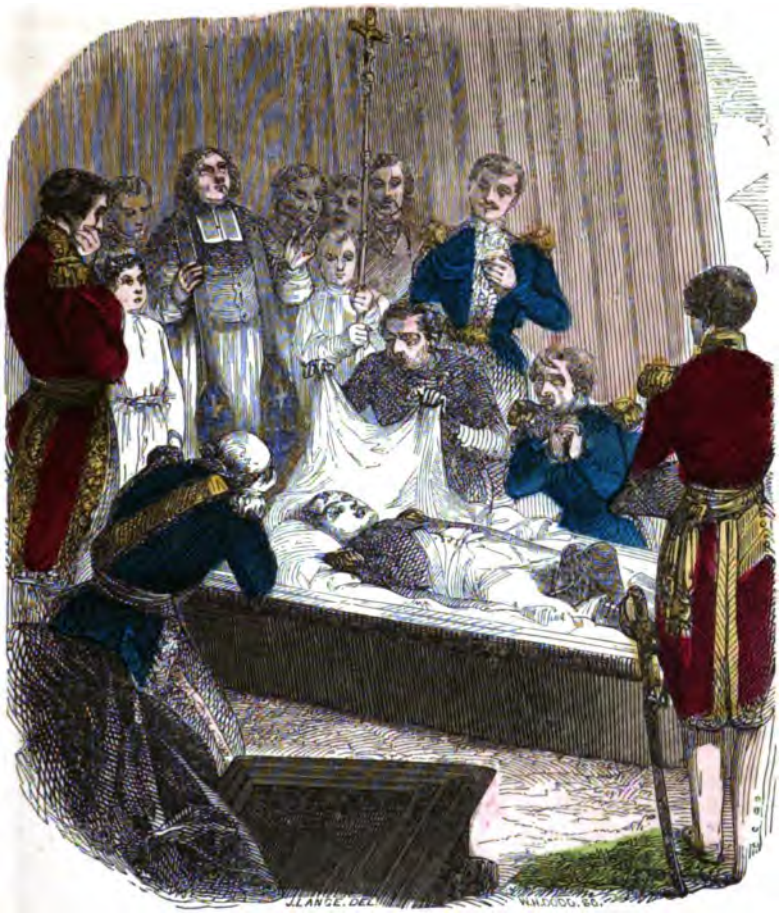
instantly quieted, and the "Revolution of Three Days" was disgraced by no excesses whatever.

On the 30th the duke of Orleans (son of Egalité, who had prompted and who perished in the first Revolution,) was appointed the temporary head of government. On the 2d of August, the king formally abdicated in favour of his grandson, and fled to England. After much collision of sentiment, the influence of La Fayette determined the Chambers to declare in favour of a limited monarchy, and to place the duke of Orleans on the throne. The career of this prince had been one of uncommon adventure and vicissitude. He had, while very young, distinguished himself in defence of the republic, had seen his father perish on the scaffold, and had been compelled to fly for his own life. He had taught mathematics in Switzerland, and resided as a private citizen in the United States.

From 1800 until the fall of Napoleon, he had quietly resided in England, and since the accession of the Bourbons, had been intrusted with military command on account of his relationship, and deprived of it on account of his too liberal principles. From a monarch trained in such a school of adversity the nation naturally expected prudence and regard to popular right. He was accordingly, on the 9th of August, publicly proclaimed "King of the French," a title constructed purposely to exclude the feudal principles of a monarchy, and to recognise the political existence of the people.

The government of the "Citizen King" proved, in many respects, firm and sensible. The French footing in Africa was maintained and extended, though at a very considerable cost both of life and money; and, in the general pacification of Europe, this turbulent and half-conquered province was considered as affording an excellent school of warfare to the officers and soldiers of the French army. The foreign relations of France, during his reign, were generally managed in a spirit of prudence and conciliation; and perhaps no government of that country ever succeeded in inspiring the other Europeon powers with greater confidence and friendliness.

The king, whose private fortune was immense, was perhaps one of the most liberal and judicious patrons of art and science whom France has ever known. The taste and pride of the nation were gratified by the erection or completion of magnificent structures, and by the most lavish expenditure upon such exhibitions of native talent as exalted the glory of the French people. The restoration of the remains of Napoleon, which his influence with the British



THE DISINTERMENT OF THE REMAINS OF NAPOLEON

"It was indeed Napoleon," says another eye-witness, M Emanuel de Las Cases; "Napoleon devoid of life, but not destroyed! One would almost have said that he was still at that last day of his career of toils and dangers, at that first day of eternity. — — — — General Bertrand gazed upon him like one who was ready to sink to the earth Many sobbed convulsively Others remained in silent sadness, their eyes filled with moisture. The face of the young Comte de Chabot was deluged with tears '—Histoire de l'Empereur Napoleon

government procured, occasioned a pageant, from its grandeur and associations perhaps the most interesting of modern times. Brought from their island-grave in St. Helena, and followed by the old soldiers of the empire, the mortal relics of the emperor were borne on a gorgeous car, amid an innumerable multitude, to their final resting-place. The king "in the name of France" solemnly received them from his son, the Prince de Joinville, who had been honoured with conveying them across the seas; and amid the most impressive ceremonies, the corpse of Napoleon was deposited beneath the great dome of the Invalides, hung round with trophies of his victorious career.

Although possessing the throne only by tenure of a sudden revolution, Louis Philippe, whether from supposed necessity, from inclination, or from distrust of his subjects, lapsed farther and farther into arbitrary measures. Unquestionably, there has always been in France, and especially in Paris, a considerable class of ultra-republicans and lawless agitators, whom no government would satisfy, and whose only object is the seizure and division of the property of others. But in his efforts to suppress this jacobinical spirit, measures were taken which also completely destroyed the liberties of the people. Suffrage was restricted to a comparatively small portion of the citizens, and the government, by its immense system of patronage, and the myriads of offices at its disposal, was usually enabled to control both the popular elections and the action of the assembly.

Severe restrictions were placed upon the liberties of the press, and prosecutions against offending editors were urged with great and unrelenting rigour. These extremities naturally produced deep indignation among the more violent spirits of the popular party, and the life of the king was so frequently attempted by assassins, that without a strong escort he was unable to make his appearance in public. An "infernal machine," prepared by Fieschi and other conspirators, was almost successful in its purpose. A large number of muskets, arranged so as to command the passage of a street, were simultaneously fired as the royal procession defiled past. The king escaped, but many persons in attendance were killed or wounded. Among the former was the celebrated Marshal Mortier.

Notwithstanding the fierce spirit of insurrection which these attempts evinced, the king for eighteen years continued to hold an uninterrupted and apparently a perfectly assured and settled sway over the excitable and capricious nation which had called him to the

throne. With a standing army of some hundred thousand men, and a line of fortifications commanding the city of Paris, his power was considered as secure as that of any European sovereign. How fruitless such precautions may be against the united movement of an indignant people, our own times have witnessed with astonishment.

In the struggle for enlarged freedom, on the one hand, and for power on the other, it was natural that every effort should be made by each party to sustain itself, or to accomplish its objects. Besides the organization of numerous secret clubs, the disaffected instituted occasional public gatherings, under the appellation of *banquets*, which were a source of peculiar annoyance to Louis Philippe and his ministers. In 1847, these banquets or dinners were frequent throughout the country, and were attended by many of the boldest spirits of the times, who readily seized upon such occasions to disseminate their projects of reform, after the example of the corn-law league in England. Of course the administration could perceive no other object in these meetings than a desire to perplex and oppose the government, if not to overturn it, and they rashly determined to exercise all the power they possessed for the suppression of all public assemblages, under whatever pretext they might be called. That the popular irritation already existing would be materially heightened by this course, must have been pretty clearly foreseen; but it was believed that the military force under its control was equal to any emergency, and would sustain the most overbearing measures which it might be desirous to adopt.

The active leaders in projects of reform having suggested that political banquets be held throughout France on the 22d of February, 1848, the birth-day of Washington, the ministers determined to put down the one which was to take place in Paris, and a proclamation was accordingly issued to that effect. Early in the morning of that day, the troops were ordered to demolish the preparations made for the banquet, and a guard was posted around the place selected for the celebration. At eleven o'clock an immense crowd had assembled on the *Place de la Concorde*, and another had collected near the Chamber of Deputies. Before their purpose was known, the latter broke into the chamber, crying "The reform for ever!" and "Down with the King!" Marshal Beaugeaud, then commanding the troops, charged the multitude, and drove them out of the hall. The people, however, were now aroused to that pitch of excitement which rendered them fearless, and it was soon evident

that the sympathies both of the National Guard and the troops of the line were enlisted in their behalf. Barricades were erected in the principal streets, which were the scenes of many desperate conflicts; and for about sixty hours it seemed extremely doubtful which party were destined to triumph.

LATE REVOLUTIONS OF FRANCE.

CHAPTER XV.

OVERTHROW OF THE HOUSE OF ORLEANS.—PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT.—THE CONSTITUENT NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.—ATTACK OF BARBÈS, ETC.—APPEARANCE OF LOUIS NAPOLEON.

For many years a strong and well-founded impatience of the government of Louis Philippe had been gradually increasing in the minds of the French people; but the remembrance of the misfortunes of anarchy and the vigilant policy of their rulers had kept down any formidable expression of discontent. An additional drop of oppression, slight in comparison with other grievances, caused the caldron of Revolution, long critically full, to boil over. The attempt of the monarch and his minister Guizot, on the 22d of February, 1848, to suppress the "political reform banquets," was only the proximate cause of a convulsion whose occurrence, within a brief time, was inevitable. His usual sagacity, for once, forsaking him, the politic king, with his advisers, resisted the people until concession was too late. Ere the news of their submission could reach the masses, blood had been shed, and the passions of the citizens were roused into phrensy. From the moment that the troops stationed at the Hotel of Foreign Affairs (February 23d) commenced to fire upon the people, the doom of the House of Orleans, like that of its predecessor, was irrevocably fixed.

On the 24th, the Tuileries were surrounded by an immense multitude, flushed with their triumph over the soldiery, and demanding the king's abdication. Believing resistance to be hopeless, from the disaffection of his troops, he complied, and signed an instrument,

renouncing the throne in favour of his grandson, the young Comte de Paris. Ere this, however, could be known, the excited populace swarmed into the palace; and the king and queen, escaping by a private entrance, drove away with a rapidity that seems almost ludicrous. They hurried to Dreux, and thence, after some delays, escaped in disguise to England—the king being dressed in the somewhat unsuitable garb of a sailor, and assuming the safely indefinite title of "Mr. Smith." Meanwhile the people, though justly incensed, had committed few excesses. Some of the trappings of royalty were destroyed, and the throne, after being paraded in triumph through the streets, was solemnly burned in the Place de la Bastille.

On the day of the royal flight, the Duchess of Orleans, accompanied by two of the king's sons, and leading the little prince on whom so vast a heritage had nominally devolved, entered the Chamber of Deputies, announced the abdication, and appealed for support to the loyalty of the assembly. A voice exclaimed, "It is too late!" and indescribable agitation prevailed. While the question of a provisional government was debated, great crowds of the armed populace pressed into the Chamber; and the royal family, having supported their trying situation with much calmness and fortitude, were compelled to withdraw. Silence being partially restored, the names of Dupont, Arago, Lamartine, Rollin, Pagès, Marie, and Cremieux, were read aloud as members of a temporary government, and were received with acclamation by the mingled mass of revolutionists and deputies. Considering the license of the moment, little actual violence was committed. As the crowd was adjourning, a workman cried out "Wait until I have a shot at Louis Philippe!" and discharged a double-barrelled fowling-piece at the picture of the late king's inauguration. Others were about to cut it to pieces with their sabres, but were deterred by the admirable conduct of another workman, who ascended the tribune, and cried out, "Respect public monuments! respect property! we have shown that the people will not allow itself to be ill-governed; let us now show that it knows how to conduct itself after victory." Great applause ensued.

The new council, adjourning to the Hotel de Ville, took the most energetic measures to allay the popular excitement, and to prepare for the formation of a constitutional government. The tri-coloured flag, endeared to the nation by a thousand associations, was rĕadopted; and the abolition of death as a punishment for political offences, seemed to assure the lustre of the Revolution from the stain

of blood which had tarnished the early efforts for freedom. Indeed, this most sudden and important triumph of popular rights had been effected with comparatively small loss of life. Only an hundred and fifty of the citizens had been slain—the soldiery, in general, sympathizing strongly in the movement, and opposing no very formidable resistance. Order, in a surprisingly short space of time, was completely restored. To the influence and eloquence of the gifted Lamartine this favourable result was, in a great measure, owing; and his name accordingly stood forward as the most brilliant and prominent of the revolutionary leaders.

On the 26th the Republic was formally proclaimed; royalty was abolished; and National workshops were thrown open to those who were without employ. So judicious were the measures and so popular the persons of the new ministers, that their authority was soon universally acknowledged—the clergy, as represented by the Archbishop of Paris, and the army, by Marshal Bugeaud, joining speedily in their adhesion to the young Republic.

A National Assembly, to prepare a fixed constitution, was convoked to meet upon the 4th of May. Nine hundred members were to be elected, and every Frenchman of the age of twenty-one was secured the privilege of voting. Till this body should meet and arrange a settled basis for government, the tranquillity of France hung on a precarious thread. The people, though still satisfied and elated at their victory, were liable to sudden excitement and tumult from the slightest cause. The new ministry were worn out in receiving and replying to the innumerable addresses which were presented to them. "Every grievance, real or imaginary, was laid at the feet of MM. Lamartine, Marrast, and Arago, with a view to a remedy. Carpenters, builders, shoemakers, tailors, sempstresses, purse-knitters, jewellers, flower-sellers, shoe-cleaners, grooms, waiters, cooks, and nursery-maids, formed deputations, day after day, and marched in procession through the streets, to detail to the government the hardships they suffered in their respective callings." On a single day, in the course of three hours, Ledru Rollin, at the porch of the Hotel de Ville, thus heard and answered the addresses of an hundred thousand workmen, who personally appeared to state their views and wishes.

To satisfy the national love of military display, all who desired it, to the number of two hundred thousand, were enrolled and equipped as National Guards; and a very effective force, styled the Garde

Mobile, was enlisted from the ranks of that needy and wild-headed youth, which naturally forms the main-spring of popular tumult.

From the interruption of business, and the withdrawal of great numbers of the opulent class from Paris, considerable distress ere long began to prevail. In Paris alone, seventy thousand artisans and workmen were out of employ, and to provide work for them, according to the pledges of government, seemed almost impossible.

So precarious was the position of the capital considered, that it was resolved to recall a portion of the regular army to Paris—a step hazardous in the extreme, but which was safely accomplished under the pretext of the "Grand Festival of Fraternity." At this magnificent spectacle, where four hundred thousand men appeared under arms, a considerable force of regular soldiers was introduced, in appearance to add to the splendour and fraternity of the occasion, but in reality to form an efficient force for the repression of popular tumult.

The French nation, taking, as usual, the lead from Paris, had for the most part fallen quietly into the new order of things; but the government, fearing the influence of royalist and other factions, used all its influence to support the success of republican candidates. The election was conducted with the most exemplary order and tranquillity, and resulted in the choice of a very large majority of the moderate republican party. The royalists and ultra republicans were comparatively few.

On the appointed day (May 4th, 1848) the assembly met at the National Palace (the former Chamber of Deputies), and in the presence of a vast multitude the Republic was enthusiastically proclaimed. The several ministers of the late government each read a report of their official acts, and it was voted almost unanimously that they had deserved well of the country. Their offices having been superseded by the meeting of the Assembly, an Executive Committee was appointed, consisting only of a part of the late incumbents—viz: MM. Arago, Garnier Pagès, Marie, Lamartine, and Ledru Rollin. Several of the Socialists and ultra republicans, who had been attached to the late government, were thus left out of office, to the great discontent of their respective factions.

On the 15th, the Assembly came very near being overthrown by the *coup de main* of a few turbulent and ambitious spirits. An excited body of the populace, led by Barbès, Blanqui, and other noted red republicans, burst into the palace, expelled the members, and boldly assumed the authority of government. With a drawn

LOUIS NAPOLEON.

TAKEN FROM A DAGUERREOTYPE

sword in his hand, Barbès harangued the tumultuous rabble, and proclaimed that a tax of a thousand millions of francs should instantly be levied on the rich for the assistance of the poor, that an equal amount should be paid by them for the aid of Poland, that the guillotine should be rëestablished, and that an executive government, consisting of himself and a few other fierce republicans, should be appointed.

The expelled members were, however, enthusiastically supported by the National Guard, a body composed principally of the more respectable and substantial citizens. Headed by Lamartine and Rollin, they marched upon the Hotel de Ville, where they arrested Barbès and many of his confederates. By evening the assembly was again in full possession of its authority—the general movement to its assistance by the military forces having overawed the fierce but less numerous opposition. A grand "Fête de Concorde," in which more than a million of persons participated, was celebrated a few days afterwards.

Nevertheless, such was the popular excitement, that it was found necessary to keep large bodies of troops in constant readiness to support the assembly; and the appearance of Prince Louis Napoleon, at this critical moment, added fresh fuel to the flame.

From his youth upward, this ambitious man (the son of Louis Bonaparte and Hortense Beauharnois) had devoted his whole energies to what appeared the chimerical scheme of seating himself on the throne of his uncle, and reviving the pernicious glories of the empire. While a mere youth, he had made a bold attempt to gain over the garrison at Strasbourg, and overthrow the government of Louis Philippe. Undismayed by his failure, and unconciliated by the clemency of the government, at a later period, he made a fresh and desperate effort to accomplish his design. Landing, with only a few adherents, at Boulogne, he expected, in emulation of the emperor, to march in triumph to Paris; but was almost immediately arrested by the officials, and was condemned to perpetual imprisonment in the strong fortress of Ham. Escaping from his prison, after a confinement of several years, he took refuge in London, where to the best of his ability he agitated his claims in exile.

This audacious and indomitable man had, on the first news of the Revolution, hastened to Paris, and thrown himself boldly into the strife for political elevation. He was at this time about forty years of age, and experience and misfortune had apparently softened

down the natural rashness of his character. Certainly, his whole demeanour, and the republican attitude which he assumed, evinced extraordinary tact and discretion.

So great a *prestige* attached to the magic name of Napoleon, that this adventurer, without a single personal claim on the attachment of the people, was elected simultaneously as a member of the assembly, in Paris and in three other departments, where vacancies had occurred. The old cry of "vive l'empereur" began to be heard in the streets, and such crowds assembled that large forces of soldiery were required to disperse them. The assembly, vexed and alarmed, received with acclamation the suggestion of Lamartine that the old laws, excluding the Bonaparte family from the soil of France, should be enforced. But this was a step too arbitrary and hazardous to be lightly carried through, and the prince, unharmed by this impolitic effervesence of spleen, took his seat in the assembly.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE INSURRECTION OF JUNE.—GREAT DESTRUCTION OF LIFE.—TRIUMPH OF GOVERNMENT.—ADMINISTRATION OF CAVAIGNAC.—ELECTION OF LOUIS NAPOLEON AS PRESIDENT.—HIS ADMINISTRATION.—HIS LATE USURPATION.

DANGER, the most formidable and immediate, however, lay in a different quarter. The government, to equalize in some degree the burden of the national workshops, and perhaps to rid itself of a dangerous nucleus of sedition, had resolved to send into the provinces twelve thousand of the workmen employed in the public factories. Vehement remonstrances were made, but in vain; and on the evening of the 22d of June, the insurgent party took the most active measures for a fresh revolution. Barricades, some of them of enormous size, were thrown up in several of the principal thoroughfares; and during the following day, thousands of the malcontents were busily employed in plucking up pavements, and piling carriages, furniture, and every species of obstruction across the streets.

Their plan had been formed with great tact and skill in engineer-

ing. These hasty fortifications (for centuries peculiar to the insurgents of Paris) included a great semi-circle, extending over nearly half of the city, and well calculated eventually to make them masters of the whole. The Faubourg St. Antoine, the ancient haunt of insurrection, formed their principal stronghold. These formidable barricades were defended by a large and exasperated multitude, comprising the most lawless and dangerous spirits of Paris, with a great number of honest, but ignorant and hot-headed *ouvriers*, or workmen, desperate with want, and eager to avenge their imaginary wrongs.

The government, though in a manner taken by surprise at this sudden and simultaneous display of the strength and energy of their opponents, took every precaution to oppose a successful resistance. The National Guard was called out, and the regular troops and the Garde Mobile were disposed in the most effective manner. Hostilities commenced on the 23d at the Porte St. Denis, which was in the hands of the insurgents. This post was gained only after a severe encounter, in which many of the troops and the Garde Mobile were killed, and in which the commander of the National Guard was mortally wounded. Skirmishing continued through the night, and the fight in several quarters was furiously renewed at daybreak. On Saturday, the 24th, the assembly declared Paris to be in a state of siege, and appointed General Cavaignac, a soldier of high African reputation, to the supreme military command.

The energy and skill of this famous general alone saved the republic, though at the cost of an immense number of lives. The insurgents were in possession of thirteen large pieces of cannon, and were well supplied with muskets and other arms. From their barricades, and from the windows of the adjoining houses, they kept up a murderous fire upon the advancing troops. The revolted sections, separated at times, resorted to every device to enable the weaker to carry on the war. The baskets of women, the mattresses of the wounded, and even the coffins of the dead, were pressed into the service as receptacles for concealed ammunition. At the market, the Pantheon, and the church of St. Severin, the fiercest fighting ensued; and the proverbial courage of the nation has seldom been more severely or cruelly tested than in this useless and fratricidal contest of its children. In the hardest encounters, the young scapegraces composing the Garde Mobile were especially distinguished for their gay and audacious bravery; and great numbers of them were of course killed and wounded. The venerable archbishop of

Paris, who had fearlessly ventured among the revolutionary ranks, with a message of conciliation, was, to the grief of all parties, mortally wounded by a chance shot. The troops, wearied with fight and watching, were at this time assisted by numerous detachments of the National Guard, which had hastened to Paris from the adjoining departments.

By the evening of Saturday, the insurgents, at a fearful cost of life, had been driven from the left bank of the Seine, but still held out in great force on the right, in the Faubourg St. Antoine, that of the Temple, and elsewhere. Early on Sunday the 25th the conflict recommenced; and after a most murderous assault they were dislodged from some of their strongest positions. It was not, however, until the following day that they were completely defeated; the survivors surrendering or flying from the city. In this civil contest, the most terrible that has ever desolated Paris, more than ten thousand had been killed and wounded. The suburbs were filled with fugitives, who were brought in and lodged, by thousands, in the overflowing prisons.

Immediately on the restoration of order, General Cavaignac resigned the temporary dictatorship with which he had been invested; and the executive authority being vacant by the withdrawal of the late committee, the assembly at once decreed it to the successful general, with full power of appointing all ministerial and other executive officers. In this new cabinet, only a single name (that of M. Marie) prominent in the late ministries was to be seen; but so judicious and energetic was the action of the new government, and so severe a check had been given to insurrection, that a more assured tranquillity prevailed than at any time since the flight of Louis Philippe. A small number of the captive insurgents were transported, and the numerous remainder were set at liberty. Louis Blanc, distinguished in the first revolutionary movement, and Caussidiere, the prefect of police, were so compromised in the late insurrection as to be compelled to fly to England. Attempts were made to implicate Lamartine and Rollin, but with doubtful success, their chief fault appearing to have been one of indecision and inefficiency.

The assembly, having overcome these formidable obstacles, proceeded to the formation of a constitution. After much debate, it was resolved that there should be but a single legislative chamber, and that the president of the republic should be elected to office for a period of four years, and at the expiration of his term should,

A BARRICADE, AS ATTACKED AND DEFENDED DURING THE LAST INSURRECTION AT PARIS, JUNE 23, 1848.

for the four ensuing years, be ineligible to the same office, (November 4th, 1848). This constitution was formally proclaimed, with impressive ceremonies, as a grand national solemnity, on the 12th of December.

It was soon evident that the choice for the presidency lay between Cavaignac and Louis Napoleon, for Lamartine, whose election, indeed, could hardly have been possible, peremptorily withdrew his name from the contest. The chances of the latter improved daily; the tried abilities and the honest moderation of the late dictator being less valued by this fickle and superficial people, than the mere lustre of a name which had brought them incredible misfortunes, and to which the wearer had done nothing worthily to vindicate his title. At the election, which took place on the 10th of December, Louis Napoleon received six out of eight millions of votes; and was formally proclaimed as president of the French people until the second Sunday of May, 1852.

It was soon evident that the new government was at least in firm and vigorous hands. An attempt at insurrection, fomented by Ledru Rollin and others, was promptly suppressed, and the leaders fled into England. Taking advantage of this conspiracy, the president and his ministers resolved effectually to quell all opposition, and accordingly commenced a system of severe and arbitrary policy, especially against the obnoxious journals. Many were suppressed, and others were so hampered with restrictions as to destroy their ability successfully to assail the government. The monarchists, as well Orleanists and Bourbonists as the partisans of Napoleon, however, were permitted openly to decry the republic.

On May 31st, 1850, a law materially curtailing the right of suffrage was passed by the influence of the government, and more than three millions of voters were thus debarred the privilege of participating in the selection of their rulers. Great popular discontent was excited, but the government, relying on the support of the army, persisted in its course.

The republican portion of the legislature was of course deeply hostile to these movements, and the moderate party, whose chief end is a settled government, began to take alarm at the evident ambition of the president, and his undeniable attempts to conciliate the affections and gain the support of the army. This feeling was soon evident in the obstacles opposed to his favourite measures, and the reluctance to allow an increase of his salary. A plan for revis-

ing the constitution, which, as affording the means of prolonging his power, he earnestly desired, was, in general, coldly received by the departments, to which it had been referred, and it was soon evident that none but illegal measures could protract his term of office beyond the stated period.

His cards, however, despite the difficulty of his position, were played with remarkable skill and audacity. He contrived to dismiss from office General Changarnier, a sturdy supporter of the republican cause, whose opposition heretofore had held him in check, and by frequent favours and festivities gained over to his cause great numbers both of officers and soldiers of the army. Confident in his strength, he continued to suppress the meetings of the opposition with arbitrary sternness, and to inflict fresh and heavy punishments upon the refractory journals. Even the editor of the Charivari (the "Punch" of Paris) was subjected to severe fine and imprisonment for a caricature, representing the constitution set up as a mark, and the president offering a reward to any one who would shoot it down. When the harmless ebullitions of popular humour can thus be proscribed, the union of strength and despotism is tolerably apparent.

After a most vehement debate in the assembly (July 19th, 1851) the motion for a revision of the constitution was rejected, not having received the votes of three-fourths, which were legally requisite to its passage. Undismayed at this failure, and perceiving that the conservative portion of the assembly was mostly hostile to his pretensions, the president, persisting in his determination to be rëelected, resolved to conciliate the three millions of disfranchised voters by restoring their privileges. Accordingly, at the next meeting of the assembly, (November 4th, 1851) he strongly recommended, in his message, the removal of the restrictions upon voting (restrictions of his own recommendation), and his ministers presented a bill to that effect. After an animated and protracted debate, however, it was rejected. A law was likewise brought before the chamber authorizing the impeachment of a president who should seek an election in violation of the provisions of the constitution.

Foiled in his ambitious schemes by the opposition of the assembly, and perceiving that he could not with impunity break down the constitution during the existence of that body, Napoleon resolved upon a speedy and violent assertion of his usurping claims. This remarkable *coup d'etat*, as the French style it, was executed with a suddenness and secresy surpassing almost any thing in the history

of conspiracy or usurpation. During the night of Monday, the first of December, Louis Napoleon informed his ministers by letters that he had determined on a forcible resistance to his opponents, and advised their immediate resignation, to avoid being compromised by his acts. Compliance was inevitable; and their places were immediately filled with creatures of his own. During the same night, all the principal officers and politicians in Paris, whom he knew to be hostile to his schemes, were suddenly arrested and thrown into prison. Among them were the famous Generals Cavaignac (formerly president of France) Changarnier, Lamoriciere, and Bedeau, with M. Thiers and a crowd of other conspicuous civilians. Taken completely by surprise, many of them in their beds, they were unable to offer any resistance. Changarnier vainly endeavoured to harangue the soldiers. These numerous arrests were distinguished by circumstances of much indignity and brutality.

The next morning (Tuesday, 2d), the following decree was placarded on the walls of Paris: "In the name of the French people, the president of the republic decrees; 1, The National Assembly is dissolved. 2, Universal suffrage is rëestablished; the law of the 31st May is repealed. 3, The French people are convoked in their communes from the 14th to the 21st December. 4, The state of siege is decreed in the whole of the first military division. 5, The council of State is dissolved. 6, The Minister of the Interior is charged with the execution of this decree." An appeal to the people by Napoleon was likewise posted up, vindicating his acts, and requiring them to pronounce, by their votes, whether or no he should be president for ten years longer. The army (to whose adhesion his success is owing) was also invoked, with insidious appeals, and exhortations to fidelity.

The assembly, excluded from their chamber by an armed guard, met at another public building, and decreed the deposition of the president, in accordance with the 68th article of the constitution which he had violated. This display of legal opposition, however, proved futile before the bayonets with which the streets of Paris were crowded. The assembly was dispersed, and an hundred and fifty of the members were arrested, though most of them were held in durance only for a day.

On Wednesday, the 3d, M. Baudin, a representative, appeared on horseback in the Rue St. Antoine, with a few companions, and exhorted the people to make a stand against usurpation. A slight

barricade was erected; but the overwhelming numbers of troops which closed around, easily suppressed this feeble show of resistance. Baudin and two other representatives were slain. "On Thursday morning, appearances of insurrection began to grow serious. Barricades were erected in several streets. At twelve o'clock, the Boulevards were swept by troops, artillery was brought up, and wherever groups of people were seen they were fired upon. It is now known that police officers encouraged the building of barricades in order to give the troops a chance to attack the people. Buildings were battered with cannon, and scores of respectable people were killed at their windows. Throughout the day, the troops behaved in the most brutal manner, bayoneting, shooting, and riding over every body within reach. Great numbers of innocent persons were killed in this manner." Many of the soldiers were drunk, and Paris presented the appearance of a city taken by storm. It was evidently the intention of the usurper and his unprincipled advisers to strike terror by a general and indiscriminate massacre. By the official return, it appears that only fifteen of the soldiers were killed, and more than two thousand of the people—a fact which sufficiently proves that a very slight resistance was made the pretext for a butchery, the most wanton and unprovoked which has been perpetrated in Paris since the days of Robespierre.

On receiving intelligence of these facts, several of the provincial districts, especially in the valley of the Rhone, made resistance to the government; but after some hard fighting, the insurgents were defeated, and order—the order of tyranny and fear—was restored. In general, the French people, accustomed to revolutions, received the event with much indifference and apathy.

The vote of the army, already conciliated by favour and largesses, was first taken, and was, as might have been expected, almost unanimous in favour of the usurper. On Sunday and Saturday, the 20th and 21st of December, the question was after a fashion submitted to the people, in the several departments of France. The only vote permitted was one of an affirmative or negative to the vague though simple proposition, that Louis Napoleon should, for ten years longer, remain at the head of affairs.

The result exhibits the disgraceful fact, that France, in overwhelming majority, submits to this high-handed act of usurpation, and settles down content with the bare name of a republic, and that, probably, only during the pleasure of the dictator. The official

returns show a vote of 7,439,219 in favour of the president, and only 640,737 against him. Making every allowance for the peculiar manner in which the election was conducted, no doubt can remain of his complete and overwhelming success—a result ascribable, in a great measure, to the mere popularity of his name, but in a still greater degree to the universal longing for a stable and reliable, even though a despotic government.

The most severe and arbitrary decrees have followed this confirmation of his power. The army has been rēmodelled in such a manner as to place it most completely under his control. Many distinguished generals and civilians have been banished, including Cavaignac, Thiers, Victor Hugo, and nearly a hundred others of the late representatives. Twenty-five hundred persons have been transported to the deadly and pestilential coast of Cayenne. The liberty-trees have all been plucked up, and the words "liberty, fraternity, and equality," have been erased from the public buildings. The populace, ever witty and gay, have ironically avenged this insult, by chalking up as substitutes the talismanic words "infantry, cavalry, and artillery."

The immense property of the Orleans family, amassed by the late king, and amounting to many millions of dollars, has been confiscated by a decree of the president, and orders have been issued for its distribution in such a manner as to conciliate various important classes—especially the artisans, the clergy, and the army. The most lavish and wholesale promotion of officers has been made, to strengthen the attachment of the latter. The National Guard, the only force which opposes any formidable resistance to regular troops, has been disbanded and disarmed.

The new constitution, which has just been decreed by the president, though admitting universal suffrage, leaves only the shadow of power to its representatives. The right of receiving petitions is denied to the legislature, and the initiative of all laws is reserved to the president. He may prorogue, adjourn, and dissolve the assembly at his pleasure, and in fact hold a complete control over legislation of every kind. A senate, composed of cardinals, marshals, and admirals, and citizens named by the president, constitutes a species of upper house, with rather the appearance than the reality of power. Its sittings are to be secret, and it may, like the assembly, be prorogued by the president, but cannot be dissolved. A strong leaning toward a monarchical government is discernible,

not only in this instrument, but in the decrees by which it has been preceded and accompanied. The law of 1848, abrogating titles of nobility, is annulled. Much of the new system is avowedly adopted from that of the empire, and the whole is so modelled as to lodge, in effect, supreme power in the hands of the dictator. The French nation, at this moment, enjoys less real liberty than it has done at any time since the Reign of Terror. The freedom of the press is completely suppressed, and even the license of conversation, so dear to that volatile people, is materially curtailed. Whether they will obtain a greater degree of freedom, and whether they are fitted to enjoy it, is a problem which time alone can determine.

THE RULERS OF FRANCE.

The Romans,	B. C. 60	TO A.D.	420
Pharamond, Chief of the Franks,	420	"	428
Clodion,	428	"	448

THE MEROVINGIAN KINGS.

Meroveus,	448	"	458
Childeric,	458	"	481
Clovis,	481	"	511
Descendants of Clovis,	511	"	628
Dagobert I., great-grandson of Clovis,	628	"	638
Clovis II.,	638	"	655
Les Rois Faineans ("the sluggish kings,") nominal sovereigns,	655	"	737
Pepin d'Heristal, Mayor of the Palace,	688	"	714
Charles Martel, son of Pepin,	714	"	741
Pepin the Short, son of Charles,	741	"	768
Charlemagne, son of Pepin,	768	"	816
THE CARLOVINGIAN KINGS, or Successors of Charlemagne,	816	"	987

HOUSE OF CAPET.

Hugh Capet,	987	"	996
Robert (the Pious), son of Hugh,	996	"	1031
Henry I., son of Robert,	1031	"	1060
Philip I., son of Henry,	1060	"	1108
Louis VI., son of Philip,	1108	"	1137
Louis VII., son of Louis VI.,	1137	"	1180
Philip II. (Augustus), son of Louis VII.,	1180	"	1223
Louis VIII., son of Philip II.,	1223	"	1226
Louis IX. (St. Louis), son of Louis VIII.,	1226	"	1270
Philip III. (the Bold), son of Louis IX.,	1270	"	1285
Philip IV. (the Fair), son of Philip III.,	1285	"	1314
Louis X. (the Peevish), son of Philip IV.,	1314	"	1316
Philip V., son of Philip IV.,	1316	"	1321
Charles IV. (the Fair), son of Philip IV.,	1321	"	1328

HOUSE OF VALOIS.

Philip VI., grandson of Philip III.,	1328	"	1350
John (the Good), son of Philip VI.,	1350	"	1364
Charles V., son of John,	1364	"	1380
Charles VI. (the Well-beloved), son of Charles V.,	1380	"	1422
Charles VII., son of Charles VI.,	1422	"	1461

Louis XI., son of Charles VII.,	FROM 1461	TO	1483
Charles VIII., son of Louis XI.,	1483	"	1498
Louis XII., great-grandson of Charles V.,	1498	"	1515
Francis I., great-great-grandson of Charles V.,	1515	"	1547
Henry II., son of Francis I.,	1547	"	1559
Francis II., son of Henry II.,	1559	"	1560
Charles IX., son of Henry II.,	1560	"	1574
Henry III. son of Henry II.,	1574	"	1589

HOUSE OF BOURBON.

Henry IV. (the Great), eleventh descendant of Louis IX.,	1589	"	1610
Louis XIII., son of Henry IV.,	1610	"	1643
Louis XIV., son of Louis XIII.,	1643	"	1715
Louis XV., great-grandson of Louis XIV.,	1715	"	1774
Louis XVI., grandson of Louis XV.,	1774	"	1793
Louis XVII., son of Louis XVI., (died from ill-treatment during the Revolution.)			
The Republic,	1793	"	1799
The Consulate,	1799	"	1804
The Empire,	1804	"	1814
Louis XVIII., brother of Louis XVI.,	1814	"	1815
The Hundred Days of the Empire,	1815		
Louis XVIII. (restored),	1815	"	1824
Charles X., brother of Louis XVIII.,	1824	"	1830
Louis Philippe, sixth descendant of Louis XIII.,	1830	"	1848
The Republic,	1848	"	——

ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

BRITAIN UNDER THE ROMANS.

LESS than two thousand years since, Britain, now one of the most powerful and civilized nations on earth, was mostly an uncultivated forest, inhabited by a rude and barbarous people, not much superior in their manners and mode of life to the Indians and other savages of our own day. They seldom tilled the earth, but lived principally on the milk and flesh of their cattle; commerce was unknown, and the humanizing arts had not the slightest existence. These people were a branch of that great Celtic race which occupied the most of Western Europe, and which had been partially subdued and civilized by the Romans. In Britain, they were divided into small independent tribes, often at warfare with each other.

The whole nation was principally under control of the priests or Druids, who were the repository of all the national knowledge and learning, probably little. Their chief doctrine was that of the transmigration of souls, and their religious rites were bloody and revolting. The nobility tyrannized without restraint over the common people, and each petty prince possessed despotic power. To the Romans, those wonderful conquerors and civilizers of mankind, is due their first step in that march of improvement which has resulted so remarkably.

B. C. 55, Julius Cæsar, who had just effected the conquest of Gaul, resolved to gain fresh renown by the invasion of an island which was regarded as lying beyond the limits of the world; and with two legions effected a landing on the coast of Kent, defeating the undisciplined forces which opposed him. Circumstances compelled his return to Gaul, but in the following spring he again landed with

five legions and two thousand horse, defeated Cassivelaunus, under whom the natives had united, received the submission of several states, imposed tribute, and departed. His remaining years were occupied in contesting the empire with his rivals, and no further conquests were made for a considerable time. Under Augustus and Tiberius, some intercourse with Rome was continued, and duties were levied by them on the commerce which had commenced between Britain and Gaul.

A. D. 43, nearly an hundred years after the invasion of Cæsar, Claudius, who was then emperor, issued orders to Plautius, the commander in Gaul, to recommence hostilities—the pretext being the complaint of a British prince, who had been exiled. The Roman general subdued the southern portion of the island, and was soon joined by the emperor, who, however, only remained sixteen days. The war was still continued by Plautius, by Vespasian (afterwards emperor), and by Ostorius. The latter defeated Caractacus, the valiant prince of the Silurians or Welsh, who, in their inaccessible mountains, had long set the Roman arms at defiance. The defeated chief was carried captive to Rome, where his courage and magnanimity gained him honourable treatment. The Silurians, however, for ten years, maintained a stubborn resistance, but were at last vanquished by Suetonius, who defeated them with great slaughter in the isle of Mona (Anglesea), which was the principal stronghold of the Druids and their followers.

The Icenians, with other native tribes, provoked by the oppression of their new rulers, revolted, and for a time were successful, committing great slaughter upon the foreigners and their adherents. In London (which even then was a place of some importance) and its vicinity, they put to death seventy thousand persons. Their queen, Boadicea, was finally defeated with great loss in a pitched battle, and the Romans regained their superiority. After various reverses, about the year 80, Vespasian committed the government to Agricola, a man distinguished for his virtues and military talents.

By the justice and mildness of his administration, he conciliated the natives, and reduced the hostile tribes to subjection. The Caledonians, a powerful nation in the north of Scotland, in the year 85, made a formidable incursion. They were thirty thousand in number, each clan being led by its chief, and the whole being under the command of an able leader, named Galgacus. The Roman commander, engaging with them near the Grampians, gained a complete

victory. Ten thousand of the Highlanders were left dead upon the plain, and the hostile tribes were compelled to give hostages to the Romans.

From this time the latter held undisputed possession of all the country south of the Scottish friths. By degrees their language and customs were diffused among the people; temples, theatres, and other public buildings were erected; and the province felt a complete dependance upon Rome. The Emperor Hadrian, during his visit, constructed a wall across the island, extending from the Solway to the Tyne, for the purpose of checking the Caledonians, who still continued their incursions.

The Christian religion was introduced into Britain, as well as into the other Roman provinces, and soon became the prevailing faith through the civilized part of the island. Under the later emperors, the prefects appointed by them, feeling secure in their distant island, often declared themselves independent, and assumed the imperial purple. As the empire became weaker by internal corruption, and by the success of her barbarian neighbours, the Roman legions were gradually withdrawn for the defence of the mother-country. The Picts or Caledonians, the Scots from Ireland, and the Saxons from the main-land, all harassed the unhappy country with their incursions. London was taken and plundered by the Picts, who, though finally defeated, still kept up their attacks. At length (A. D. 420), the last Roman legion, amid the lamentations of the weak and unfortunate Britons, quitted their shore for ever; and they were left unprotected from the ravages of their numerous invaders.

CHAPTER II.

THE SAXON INVASIONS, AND THE HEPTARCHY.

In the year 449, after various domestic dissensions had further weakened the defenceless kingdom, Vortigern, a native prince, being hard pressed by a rival, and continually troubled by the Pictish invasions, took the fatal step of inviting to his assistance a body

of Saxon mercenaries. The tribes inhabiting the forests of Germany and the western shores of Central Europe, were a race far superior to the Britons in courage and enterprise. Already their strong and well-rigged vessels had penetrated to distant shores, on errands of piracy or commerce. Hengist and Horsa, two renowned chiefs, complied with the invitation of Vortigern, and landed in Britain with three ships and sixteen hundred men.

Strengthened by further reinforcements, they successfully repelled the Picts and Scots; but, unsatisfied with the Isle of Thanet, which had been bestowed upon them, they made further demands. These not being complied with, they turned their arms against their allies, and a series of hostilities commenced, which in the end resulted in the entire subjugation of the island by its new invaders. Horsa was slain; but Hengist, by a series of victories, gained possession of the whole of Kent, and thus founded the first kingdom of the Saxon Heptarchy. Fresh numbers of the foreigners flocked over. A chief named Ella, after a contest of several years, gained possession of further territories, and constituted the kingdom of South Saxons, now Sussex. Another body, under Cerdic, formed the principality of West Saxons or Wessex. Others, landing on the eastern coast, took the name of East Saxons, and their territory was called Essex. Norfolk and Suffolk were conquered and settled by the Angles, and named from them East Anglia. To this race England is indebted for its present name. Deira and Bernicia, two British principalities, were subdued by the same people, and formed the kingdom of Northumbria, the most powerful in Britain. Mercia was for the most part conquered and settled by the same people. Thus was formed the Heptarchy, or seven kingdoms of the German invaders.

These changes occupied a period of nearly an hundred and fifty years, during which the Britons opposed an insufficient resistance to their fierce and warlike foes, and were gradually reduced to complete subjection. Only the dwellers in the mountainous district of Wales, and the scattered tribes which took refuge thither, remained an independent and separate people. In other parts of the island, the nationality of the native race was so completely effaced, that their original language became entirely disused, and modern English contains very few traces of the language of the original inhabitants.

All Britain was now divided between the new and victorious race of Anglo-Saxons, the original Britons, who had retreated into

Wales, and the Picts and Scots, in the northern part of the island. Petty wars continually prevailed, not only between the different races, but the separate tribes of each among themselves.

The most important event of these times was the second introduction of Christianity into the island. In the year 596, Gregory, a zealous pontiff, eager to effect the conversion of the heathen Saxons, depatched into Britain a monk named Augustine, with forty companions. Ethelbert, king of Kent, where they landed, was married to a Christian princess, sister of the king of Paris. Though somewhat apprehensive of their power, as magicians, he gave them permission to disseminate their doctrines among the people. This they did with such effect, that great numbers embraced the new religion, and among them the king and his court. Ten thousand are said to have been baptized on a single Christmas.

The first church was erected in Canterbury, on the site of the present cathedral; and shortly afterwards another, dedicated to St. Peter, was reared on the banks of the Thames, where Westminster Abbey now stands. The faith continued to spread, and ere long was firmly established in all the Anglo-Saxon states.

After nearly two centuries further had elapsed, during which time Mercia had been at times the predominant power, and various uninteresting wars had been waged among the different principalities, the royal line of Wessex rose into great eminence. Egbert, the king, who had been for some years an exile in France, and a guest of the great emperor Charlemagne, returned to Britain in the year 800, and assumed the crown. After devoting some time to the improvement of his realm, in 809 he attacked the Britons of Cornwall, and in fourteen years reduced them to submission. He was next engaged in war with Mercia, the forces of which he completely defeated. Kent submitted to him, and the East Anglians revolted, and espoused his cause. The king of Mercia, still struggling for the supremacy, was slain in battle; and in 827 Egbert invaded and conquered his kingdom. He next seized Northumbria, and finally crowned his successes by the conquest of Wales.

CHAPTER III.

THE ANGLO-SAXON KINGS.

THE whole island south of the friths was now united under Egbert. This prince, the first ruler of the British nation, was a man of great talents and ambition, both probably matured by a residence at the court of Charlemagne. He gave his kingdom the name of Angleland (England), which, with little alteration, it bears to this day. Scarcely had he reduced his new dominions to order, when he was called upon to repel the most formidable enemy which the nation ever encountered.

The Northmen or Danes, inhabitants of Denmark and Norway, and destined to be the scourge of all adjoining nations, first landed in England on the coast of Dorset, with a small force, in the year 787. Ere long they descended on Northumbria, and plundered the monasteries. In 833 they came, with thirty-five vessels, to Charmouth, in Dorset, where Egbert gave them battle, but was unable to repulse them from the country. Two years afterwards a large body joined the Britons of Devon, and invaded Wessex, but were defeated by Egbert. That monarch died in the following year, leaving Wessex to one of his sons, Ethelwulf, and Sussex, Kent, and Essex to Athelstane, the other.

The Danes continued to make yearly incursions upon the southern and eastern coasts; but were, in general, bravely resisted. Encouraged, however, by spoil, in the year 851 they sailed up the Thames, plundered London and Canterbury, and advanced into Surrey. Here, however, they were encountered by Ethelwulf, and defeated with great slaughter. At the death of that prince, in 858, his sons Ethelbald and Ethelbert succeeded. The latter, surviving, found himself in possession of the whole kingdom in 860.

The Danes continued their ravages. They burned the city of Winchester, and after receiving a large sum from the people of Kent as the price of peace, devastated the country.

Ethelbert dying in 866, his brother Ethered ascended the throne; and in the year of his accession, a large army of Danes, landing in East Anglia, procured horses, and marched into Northumbria,

defeating the natives, and seizing on York and Nottingham. In 870 they spread into Lincolnshire, burning and plundering wherever they came. The king vainly endeavoured to oppose them, and in 871 was twice defeated in Wessex, and soon after died, leaving the crown to his brother Alfred, a youth of high promise, and already distinguished in the war.

Coming to the throne at the age of twenty-two, he continued the conflict, and fought nine battles during the first year of his reign. A treaty was made, which, however, the Danes disregarded, and again overran the country in 873. Further contests ensued, and further treaties were made, all of which were faithlessly broken by the Danes, when opportunity served. In 878 they gained such advantages, that almost the whole nation submitted to them, and the king was forced to wander about the country in the disguise of a peasant.

By degrees he collected a small force of faithful adherents, with whom he lived in the midst of a marsh in Somerset. The men of Devon having successfully resisted an attack of the foreigners, Alfred resolved to make another attempt to expel the invaders. He entered their camp disguised as a minstrel, and having learned all that he wished, summoned his subjects to renew the war. Marching to Ethandune, he defeated the enemy in a fierce engagement, besieged them in their camp, and dictated terms of peace. Guthrum, their leader, was baptized, and acknowledged himself a vassal of the English king. He was permitted to retain a portion of territory, and ever after remained faithful to his new sovereign. His people also laid aside their rude and predatory habits, devoting themselves to agriculture.

During fifteen years, in which the nation was at peace, Alfred employed himself in fortifying the cities of his realm, organizing a militia, and improving his navy. In the year 893 a fresh body of invaders, with two hundred and fifty vessels, arriving in Kent, fortified a camp. Others sailed up the Thames. The Danes, who had settled in Northumbria and East Anglia, revolting, invaded Devon. The king gained several victories, and after the war had been protracted for four years, the enemy sought the shore, and sailed for France. Their piratical excursions on the coast were also repressed by the superior naval force of the king, who, *in terrorem*, hanged the crews of two of their vessels, driven ashore on the coast of Sussex.

This great and admirable monarch died in 901, in the thirtieth

year of his reign, at the age of fifty-three. His name has since been proverbial as the model of a good sovereign. During his long and troubled reign, he devoted much time and attention to the encouragement of literature and general education; he promoted commerce, and enforced the impartial administration of justice. His memory has always been cherished with the greatest fondness by the English nation.

His son Edward I. (surnamed the Elder), was chosen to succeed him, by the Witan or parliament. His reign was at first disturbed by the pretensions of Ethelwald, a son of Ethelbald, who, with the assistance of the Danes of Northumbria, maintained his claim to the throne for several years. He was finally slain in battle, and the Danes, continuing their hostilities, were defeated with immense slaughter. The supremacy of Edward gradually extended over the whole islands, even the princes of Wales and Scotland acknowledging allegiance to him. He died in 925, after a successful reign of twenty-four years.

Athelstane, his eldest son, by his father's will and the election of the Witan, succeeded. Shortly after his accession, the Britons of Cambria and Damnonia attempted to recover their independence, but were defeated and subdued. A formidable alliance between the northern Danes and Scots was no more successful. The Danish chiefs were compelled to fly beyond seas, and the Scottish king to renew his allegiance, and give his son as a hostage. Anlaf, one of the former, becoming master of Dublin, renewed the war, assisted by the Scots and several of the British tribes.

Anlaf, in the guise of a minstrel, examined the king's camp, and a night attack was commenced by the confederates. A battle ensued, lasting all the following day, which resulted in their entire defeat, with the loss of many of their chiefs and vast numbers of their followers. After this decisive victory, the reign of Athelstane was undisturbed. He was in friendly alliance with the first princes on the continent, many of whom were connected with him by marriage or other private ties. He died in 941, and was succeeded by his brother Edmund, a youth of eighteen. After some years of contest with Anlaf, with whom he was compelled to share his sovereignty, the death of the latter enabled him to rēgain and extend his authority. He met his death in a manner curiously characteristic of the rudeness of the times. Seeing at his table one Leof, an outlaw, the king sprang up, and attempted to eject him from the room.

In the struggle, he received a mortal wound from the knife of the intruder, and died in 946, after a reign of five years.

His brother Edred succeeded to the throne, and being acknowledged king, subdued a rebellion in Northumbria, and converted it into an earldom for one of his adherents.

On his death, in 955, Edwy, son of Edmund, was chosen king. His reign was brief and unhappy. Dunstan, the Abbot of Glastenbury, a man of great talents, and enthusiastic in the cause of the church, had for some time possessed almost absolute authority with the court and nation. Perceiving his influence on the wane after the accession of Edwy, a youth of seventeen, and fond of pleasure, he sought the means of regaining his ascendancy, and in conjunction with Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, compelled the king to separate from his wife Elgiva. Her face was scarred with a hot iron, and shortly afterwards she was brutally murdered by the soldiers of Odo. Her unfortunate husband did not long survive her; and at his death, in 959, his brother Edgar, at the age of thirteen, was chosen king. Dunstan became his chief adviser, and was elevated to the highest offices in the English church.

Edgar, surnamed the peaceful, an unprincipled and sensual monarch, entered into strict league with the clergy, and reigned till 975, when he died, and was succeeded by his son Edward II. (the Martyr). After a brief reign, this prince was assassinated in 978, by command of Elfrida, his step-mother, who thus procured the elevation of her own son, Ethelred, to the throne.

Early in his reign, the Danes renewed their ravages. The whole southern coast was devastated, and London itself was taken and plundered. The Witan, in 991, had recourse to the miserable expedient of buying them off, for which purpose a tax, called *Danegeld* (Dane-money), was levied throughout the kingdom.

Ten thousand pounds of silver, which they received, only served to incite them to further incursions; and, in the following year, they renewed the war. In 993, Sweyn, king of Denmark, and Olave, king of Norway, entered the Humber with a large fleet, ravaged the adjoining countries, and laid siege to London itself. Failing to take it, they laid waste the south, and only desisted on payment of a new bribe of sixteen thousand pounds. Year after year the incursions of the Northmen were renewed, and were but feebly opposed by the English. In the year 1002, twenty-four thousand pounds were paid them as the price of quiet.

Soon afterwards the king and his assembly determined on a bold and treacherous project. On a given day, the Danes, scattered throughout the island, were every where attacked and slain without mercy by the native inhabitants. Among them was Gunhilda, the sister of Sweyn. In revenge, the Danish monarch rēcommenced hostilities, and for four years laid waste the southern and eastern parts of the kingdom. In 1006, a respite from plunder was purchased, as before, by payment of thirty thousand pounds.

During two years of peace, which succeeded, great preparations for defence were made, and a large fleet was assembled at Sandwich; but a quarrel among the leaders rendered these exertions of no effect. Soon afterwards a formidable Danish force, commanded by Thurkill, landed at Sandwich; ravaged the country far and near; and was only induced to depart, at the end of two years, by payment of forty-eight thousand pounds. Their leader was also made Earl of East-Anglia, and, with a great number of his men, taken into the king's pay.

All was unavailing. The next year, 1013, Sweyn appeared with a large armament, and sailed up the Humber. Joined by the Danes already in England, he overran the country. The greater part soon submitted, and Ethelred, after taking refuge in the isle of Wight, was compelled to seek an asylum, with his family, at the court of Normandy.

CHAPTER IV.

THE DANISH KINGS AND THE LAST OF THE SAXONS.

THE Danish monarch, having become master of all England, died in the following year, 1014, and the Danes chose his son Canute to fill the throne. The English resolved to rēcall Ethelred, who, with his son, Edmund Ironside, rēcommenced the war. After various indecisive movements, and the treacherous assassination of some of the Danish chiefs, Ethelred died in 1016 at London.

Edmund was chosen as his successor by the Witan at London;

but that of Wessex decided in favour of Canute. Hostilities were immediately commenced. The Dane took London, and after several obstinate conflicts, the kingdom, by mutual agreement, was divided between them, Edmund retaining a titular superiority. He died the same year, and the Witan, assembling at London, declared Canute king of all England.

To strengthen his power, the new sovereign married Emma, the widow of Ethelred, and gave large possessions to his most distinguished supporters. He was now the most powerful monarch of his age, being king of Denmark, Norway, and England, and having the homage of Sweden and Scotland. His time was principally spent in England, but he often visited his northern dominions, and successfully put down all attempts at revolt. As he grew old, his reign became mild and equitable, and he gained the affections of his new subjects.

It is related that, to rebuke the flattery of his courtiers, he ordered his chair to be set upon the strand at Southampton, and commanded the advancing tide to respect the majesty of his person. As the waves reached and foamed around him, he reproved the senseless adulation of his flatterers, and from that time laid aside the crown, deposited it in the cathedral, and never resumed it. He died at Shaftesbury, 1035, after a reign of eighteen years.

Of his three sons, Sweyn inherited by will the kingdom of Norway, Harold that of England, and Hardacnute Denmark. Harold, securing the royal treasure, and supported by the Danish faction, was enabled to exclude Hardacnute, the son of Emma, on whom, by the original settlement of Canute, the crown devolved. He died in 1040, and Hardacnute was unanimously invited to ascend the throne. He reigned but two years, and died from excess at a drinking match in 1042.

Edward (the Confessor), a son of Ethelred, was at this time in England, and Godwin, the powerful earl of Wessex, and son-in-law of Canute, offered to secure him the crown on condition of his espousing Editha, the earl's daughter. A great council was held at London, and by the influence of Godwin, the prince was elected to the throne, and crowned at Winchester in 1043. The odious tax of *Dane-geld* was abolished by him, and the valuable possessions granted to Danish favourites were resumed. The influence of Godwin was paramount: his authority, and that of his sons, Sweyn and Harold, extended over all the south of England and the greater part

of the kingdom. Edward, though compelled to acquiesce, disliked the family, and selected all his favourites from Normandy, the country of his education. Numbers of these foreigners flocked over, and were advanced to high offices. Their language, the Norman French, was also adopted at court, and the people began to be jealous of the ascendancy which this more polished race was acquiring.

Open hostilities commenced with an affray in Dover, caused by the insolence of the foreigners; and Godwin, with his sons, espoused the cause of the English. They were, however, obliged to flee into exile, and sentence of outlawry was passed against them. Their possessions were allotted to others, and the king's authority was completely established. At this time his cousin William, duke of Normandy, paid a visit to the English court, and perhaps first entertained his ambitious designs upon the kingdom.

In 1052, the exiled family of Godwin made a vigorous movement to recover their power. Harold raised forces in Ireland, and his father, with a large fleet from Flanders, appeared on the south coast. The people declared in their favour, and, uniting their forces, they marched to London. The king was compelled to yield. The Witan-gemot was assembled; all their honours and possessions were restored, and the foreigners were mostly compelled to quit the kingdom. The death of Godwin, which occurred not long after, increased the power and influence of his successor Harold.

At this time, the interference of England was solicited by Malcolm, the rightful heir to the Scottish throne. His father, Duncan, had been treacherously murdered by Macbeth, one of his officers, who usurped the crown. The prince claimed the protection of Edward, as his liege lord, and an army was despatched to his assistance, under Earl Siward, who defeated and slew the usurper, and in 1054 placed Malcolm on the throne.

The king, who had intended to appoint his nephew Edward to the succession, was disappointed by his sudden death; and it is said that he made a will, appointing William of Normandy heir to the kingdom. Harold having fallen into the hands of a lawless baron on the coast of Ponthieu, was, by order of William, released, and sent to the court of Normandy. On this occasion, the latter informed him of his aspirations to the crown, and Harold, seeing himself in the duke's power, took an oath to support his pretensions.

Edward having rebuilt and consecrated Westminster Abbey, died, and was buried there in 1065, having reigned twenty-three years.

His character was weak and feeble, better suited for a cloister than a throne. The comparative peacefulness and tranquillity of his reign, however, and the equitable laws which then prevailed, caused the people often to recall his memory with regret, in later and more tyrannical times.

On the day of his funeral, Harold was crowned without opposition, having, it is said, obtained from the king, on his death-bed, a nomination as successor. The news reached William while hunting at Rouen, and the bow dropped from his hand. By advice of his barons he summoned Harold to resign the crown. This being promptly refused, the duke convened a general parliament of his nobles and dependants at Lillebonne. Though not obliged by their tenures to accompany him beyond seas, they agreed to attempt the conquest of England, and many warlike leaders from the adjoining countries flocked to his standard. The Pope also espoused his cause, and sent him a consecrated banner and a hair of St. Peter.

Meanwhile, Harold was engaged in conflict with his ferocious and gigantic namesake, Harold Hardrada, king of Norway, who had landed in England, and defeated the forces sent to oppose him. The English monarch, before joining battle, offered his brother Tosti, who was with the enemy, an earldom and other honours. It being demanded what he would give to the king of Norway, Harold replied, "Seven feet of English earth, or, as he is a giant, perhaps a little more." Tosti and Hardrada were slain, and their army was completely defeated.

Immediately afterwards, came tidings of the invasion of William, who landed with a force of sixty thousand men at Pevensey, on the 28th of September, 1066. The king hastened to London, in six days assembled a large force, and marched against the invaders. On the 15th of October the two armies engaged at a place called Senlac (now Battle), about eight miles inland of Hastings. The English stood on the defensive, the king fighting on foot beneath the royal banner, and all his nobles following his example.

The Normans advanced to the attack, preceded by the papal flag, and led by William, who bore around his neck a number of the ghastly relics upon which Harold lately had sworn to support his claim. A Norman knight, named Taillefer, rode in front of the army, tossing his sword in the air, and singing the song of the hero Roland. He slew two of the English, but fell by the hand of a third. The Normans discharged their arrows, and then closed in

action. Their cavalry was twice driven back, and they were unable to break the compact masses of the English. By enticing a portion of the defenders into a pursuit, William was enabled to cut them off. The archery still continued to pour a flight of arrows upon their crowded ranks; and one of these entering the eye of Harold, decided the day. The king was slain, and his army utterly routed. The victors in this obstinate contest lost a fourth of their number; the loss of the English, as well as their original number, is unknown.

At the time of this important event, the Anglo-Saxons, politically speaking, were possessed of a tolerable share of freedom and liberal institutions, though strongly tinctured with the barbarism of the age. They were divided into several distinct classes. First, the nobility, called Eorls (earls), composed of the lords and gentry; second, the Ceorles (carles), who owned or cultivated the ground, and held it by payment of certain dues, or the performance of certain services to the lords; and thirdly, the Theowes, or slaves, who were the absolute property of their masters. Slavery and the slave-trade appear to have prevailed in England from an early period.

The country was divided into Townships, Hundreds, and Shires, much as it is at present; and regular jurisdiction belonged to each of these divisions. The clergy constituted a portion of all the higher courts. The Witana-gemot was the great council or parliament of the kingdom, and sat thrice a year. The king in person presided, and next to him sat the bishops, abbots, and other clergy; beneath these the Welch and Scottish princes, and lower still the *ealdormen*, or chief men of the shires, and the landholders. In this grand council all laws were made, taxes imposed, and state offenders tried. It also had power to choose a successor to the crown from any of the royal line.

In the several lower courts, were tried various crimes and misdemeanours. Treason, robbery, murder, and some other offences were punished with death. Homicide might be paid for at a given rate, according to the rank of the individual slain—that of a *ceorl* being two hundred shillings, and of a lord twelve hundred. The oath of the latter was also held equal to six of the former. The trial by ordeal of fire or water was common; the defendant's innocence being presumed if he escaped unhurt, and *vice versa*. Something slightly resembling the trial by jury also prevailed.

The feudal principle existed to a certain extent; and the greater part of the royal revenues was derived from the dues and tributes

of those holding lands and titles under the king. All real estate was also held liable for the repair of roads and bridges, the maintenance of fortresses, and the furnishing men for the defence of the kingdom.

The clergy enjoyed high consideration; having a place *ex officio* in the various courts and councils. A bishop ranked with an earl; and the oath of a priest was held equal to that of an hundred and twenty *ceorles*. In her doctrines and ceremonies, the Anglo-Saxon church closely followed that of Rome.

CHAPTER V.

WILLIAM I., WILLIAM II., AND HENRY I.

After ravaging the coast and burning Dover, the Duke of Normandy directed his march toward London. Resistance seemed hopeless; disunion prevailed in the various parties of the English; and the chief persons among the clergy and laity entered his camp, and made their submission. He was crowned on the 25th of December, at Westminster Abbey, in the midst of a contest between his followers and the English, which left the church almost empty.

William, hereafter called the Conqueror, displayed at first a strong desire to conciliate his new subjects; and commenced his reign with many liberal and judicious measures. He confiscated, however, the estates of those who had fought against him at Hastings, and his followers, who received them, erected castles, and secured them with Norman garrisons. Having settled affairs for a time, he returned to Normandy, astonishing his subjects by the splendour of his spoils, and richly endowing his favourite monasteries. The Pope, also, was liberally remembered.

Meanwhile, his officers and followers in England, by their oppression, were driving the people to a desperate resistance. In some parts the Normans were expelled from their possessions, and a general revolt was meditated. William returned in haste, conciliated the principal persons of the realm, and reduced the revolted

provinces by arms. The conquered country was divided among his followers.

A second and formidable scheme of insurrection was also suppressed; and the Conqueror burned, plundered, and massacred throughout many of the fairest portions of England. An attempt headed by the sons of Harold was in like manner defeated.

A more troublesome enemy was found in Sweyn, king of Denmark, who sent his brother and two sons, with two hundred and forty vessels, to the assistance of the English. William, however, by bribery finally induced them to depart, and then took the most savage revenge upon the revolted provinces, leaving them a perfect desert. Famine ensued, and more than a hundred thousand persons perished. A few desperate men still continued their resistance for a while longer, but were finally defeated, and mostly slain.

Having reduced the kingdom to entire subjection, William entered Scotland, and received the homage of King Malcolm; thence passing over to the continent, he plundered and subdued the province of Maine. While thus absent, in 1075, a new insurrection, headed by Norman nobles, broke out in England. It was, however, suppressed without much difficulty, and the king took occasion to behead the last earl of English blood who still retained the title.

His own family now began to give the monarch great uneasiness. Robert, his eldest son, discontented because Normandy was not granted him, set the king's authority at defiance, and intrenched himself in a castle of that province. The king besieged him, and one day, in a sally, was unhorsed and wounded by his own son, who, however, soon went into voluntary exile.

The bishop of Durham, a foreigner, had oppressed the people intolerably; and, refusing redress, was set upon by his flock, and slain, with many of his people. The insurrection extended; but Odo, bishop of Bayeux, the king's brother, marched with an army into the disaffected region, pillaging and slaughtering the malcontents. His own fall, however, was at hand. While endeavouring to secure the papacy, he was seized and imprisoned by William, who dreaded his ambitious projects.

In 1085, the kings of Norway and Denmark prepared a great fleet and army to effect the liberation of England from the foreign yoke. The Conqueror also enlisted a vast force, principally foreign mercenaries; but from various causes (among them, liberal bribery by William) the northern armament never sailed for England.

Scotch Costume.
OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

Irish Costume
IN THE REIGN OF JAMES I

Highland Bagpiper

Scotch Costume
OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

Costume of Ancient Britons,
TIME OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

English Costume,
OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

English Costume,
IN THE TIME OF HENRY VIII

Irish Costume,
OF THE TWELFTH CENTURY

In 1087 the king quitted England, amid the curses of his people. While at Rouen, he was greatly enraged at a joke made by the king of France upon his corpulency, and immediately commenced hostilities against that monarch, burning and destroying the country before him. While galloping through the embers of the town of Mantes, which he had burned, his horse started, and injured him dangerously. Being conveyed to a neighbouring monastery, he languished six weeks, and then died; his last acts showing deep remorse for the cruelty and violence which he had exercised. He left, by will, Normandy to his son Robert, England to William, and five thousand pounds to his third son, Henry. At his death, all persons present hurried off to secure their own interests; the house was plundered; and the corpse lay for some time almost naked on the floor. When it was about to be interred in the church at Caen, which he had built, the owner of the land, whom he had despoiled of it, forbade the burial until he received the price of the grave.

This monarch, who effected such an entire change in the affairs of England, was a man of consummate ability, but cruel, avaricious, and selfish in the extreme. His personal strength and courage were great; and he especially delighted in hunting, for which amusement (in addition to sixty-eight royal parks) he laid waste a tract of thirty square miles in Hampshire, called the New Forest, burning all habitations, and expelling the people. With good policy, he conciliated the clergy, and secured their support by frequent and liberal grants and constant patronage.

In the latter part of his reign, the celebrated survey was made, and recorded in the "Domesday Book," of all the landed property and its holders in the realm. The internal regulations for the preservation of peace and property (except where the king himself was concerned) were severe, and tolerably efficient.

William II. (Rufus, the Red), on arriving at England, hastened to secure the treasures and the strongholds. He was crowned at Westminster on the 26th of September. Odo, indeed, and others of the Anglo-Norman nobles, declared in favour of Robert, as the rightful heir; but William, to conciliate the English in his favour, made many fair promises of reform, and thus raising an army, was enabled to put down the discontented faction. No amelioration of the people's condition, however, was granted.

In 1091 he attempted the conquest of Normandy, then held by Robert; but having come to an agreement, the two brothers turned

their arms against Henry, whom they compelled to surrender his fortress, and betake himself into exile.

Meanwhile, Malcolm had made an incursion into England; but on the return of William was compelled to renew his homage, and in 1093, making a new irruption, was slain in a skirmish. A fresh attempt on Normandy, an invasion of the Welsh, and a revolt of some of his own barons, furnished further employment to the king for his arms and policy.

At this time, Peter the Hermit had infected all Europe with the fanatical and enthusiastic design of recovering the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem from the Turks. Robert, a brave soldier, and eager to distinguish himself in this new contest, assumed the cross; and, to raise money for the expedition, agreed to yield his duchy to William, for five years, for the sum of ten thousand marks. William almost stripped the kingdom to raise it, and in 1096 took possession of the province.

In the latter part of his reign, the king was engaged in disputes with the clergy, similar to those which proved so troublesome to his successors. In the year 1099, on the 2d of August, he went hunting in the New Forest, and in the evening was found lying dead, with an arrow through his breast. This deed has been attributed to Walter Tyrrel, a French knight, but without sufficient proof. The perpetrator and the motive are alike unknown. The king died in the twelfth year of his reign, leaving a character for ability and unscrupulousness much resembling that of his father.

His brother, Henry I., having hastened to secure the treasure, was crowned on the 5th, three days afterwards. He made conciliatory promises to the clergy, barons, and people; and, to secure the English interest, married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland, and of Margaret, a kinswoman of King Edward's.

Robert, returning from the Holy Land, took possession of his duchy of Normandy, and with a large force landed at Portsmouth, to contest the possession of England. By mediation of some of the principal men, however, he resigned his claim for a pension of three thousand marks which, however, in 1103, he was obliged to relinquish, having imprudently trusted his person into the hands of his brother.

Henry, pursuing his ambitious and unnatural career, landed in Normandy, in 1105, with a great force, and, after an indecisive campaign, totally defeated Robert and his army with great slaugh-

ter. All Normandy became his, and his unfortunate brother was kept close prisoner till his death—a period of thirty years.

In 1120 the king sustained a severe shock in the loss of his eldest son William, who was drowned in crossing the straits. After hearing the news, he is said never to have smiled again.

For some time he had been disturbed by the hostile pretensions of William, son of Robert, assisted by the king of France and other princes; but his death in a battle at last removed this cause of uneasiness. Having no male heir, the succession was settled upon his daughter Matilda, the widow of the Emperor Henry V., and now married to Geoffrey of Anjou. The latter part of his reign was spent in Normandy, where he died on the 1st of December, 1135, in the sixty-seventh year of his age. This prince (called Beauclerc, from his love of letters) possessed the abilities and faults of his two predecessors. Justice, however, was rigidly executed. The forest laws were even more severe than under the Williams—the killing of a stag being made equal to that of a man.

CHAPTER VI.

STEPHEN, AND HENRY II.

STEPHEN, a grandson of the Conqueror by his daughter Adela and the count of Blois, resolved, on the death of Henry, to make a bold attempt upon the crown. Passing into England, where he was very popular, he seized the treasure (as usual), and, by procuring a person to swear that he had been named heir to the throne by the king on his death-bed, gained over the primate to crown him at Westminster on the 22d of December.

The barons, taking advantage of the weakness of the new government, began to act the part of petty tyrants throughout the country. Fortified castles arose on every side, and the unhappy peasants and citizens were most cruelly plundered and oppressed. Few atrocities can exceed the tortures, murders, and outrages of every kind, which for many years rendered England one of the most miserable countries on earth.

The king found his throne by no means an easy one. Revolts and Scottish incursions followed each other in rapid succession. Hardly had he surmounted these difficulties, when in 1141 Matilda, with her natural brother, Robert, landed in Sussex, and was joined by many barons and knights. After various battles and skirmishes, the king was defeated and made prisoner near Lincoln, and Matilda was proclaimed queen of England.

Such was her haughty and ungracious temper, that the Londoners and others speedily revolted; Robert was seized; and Stephen, by exchange for him, rēgained his liberty. After the war had been protracted for some years longer, the death of Robert so discouraged the empress, that in 1147 she withdrew into Normandy. Hostilities ceased for two years, but in 1150 her son Henry, passing through the kingdom to Scotland, rēanimated the hopes of her faction. Having come into possession of Normandy, he passed over into England, in 1152, to support his adherents. After some hostile manœuvres, it was agreed that Stephen should hold the crown during his life, and that Henry should succeed him. The king died in the following year, on the 25th of October, after an unquiet reign of nineteen years. Though a usurper, he possessed many admirable qualities, and would probably, under more fortunate circumstances, have made a good king.

It may be remarked that the Norman conquest had made but little difference in the laws of England, or in the constitution of courts. The principal changes were the transfer of nearly all the landed estate to the new comers; the enlargement of the feudal system; the change in the church government; and the separation of the spiritual from the civil jurisdiction.

The feudal system, the origin of which has been variously deduced from the Roman and Celtic customs, was of a complicated and extended nature; but, in general, the effect was to render all landholders dependent upon the higher classes, and make them liable to service in war, and various duties in time of peace. The great baron holding lands of the king, received the feudal homage of his knights, and they, in their turn, of the yeomen and others who held under them.

The church of Rome had gradually been acquiring an ascendancy over all others, and in her various contests with the continental powers, had usually kept the advantage. In England, as well as elsewhere, she had gained a paramount influence, and interfered

actively with the royal authority. This power was greatly augmented by the privilege accorded to the clergy by William I., of being invariably tried before their brethren; an arrangement which rendered them almost irresponsible for crime.

The courts remained almost unchanged. The highest of these, called the King's Court, attended his person, and was composed of the chancellor, treasurer, justiciary, and other high officers. Ordeals still remained in use, and the equally absurd *wager of battel*, or a trial by arms, was introduced.

The royal revenues were derived from every variety of sources. Tolls, permission to trade, fines, forfeitures, right of trial, plunder of Jews, &c., &c., were a few of the regular sources of the royal income.

Henry II. (Plantagenet), at the age of twenty-one, ascended the throne without opposition. Besides England, he had inherited from his parents and gained by marriage nearly a third of France. He immediately commenced a reformation of the existing abuses; expelled the mercenaries from the kingdom; purified the coin; resumed the possession of the royal castles; and caused the demolition of those which had been erected by the nobles. In 1156 he compelled his brother Geoffrey to resign his pretensions to Anjou and Maine, which he had invaded. He afterwards gained further accessions to his territory in France, got possession of Brittany, and attempted to hold Toulouse.

The king next turned his attention to repressing the excesses of the clergy, among whom murders and other crimes, being unpunished, had become horribly frequent. To effect this, it was necessary to appoint some one to the primacy on whose support he could depend. Thomas à Becket, the offspring (it is said) of a romantic union between a Londoner and the daughter of a Saracen emir, was one of the most able and ambitious men of his time. Though educated for the church, he had filled many important civil offices. Appointed high-chancellor, he greatly distinguished himself by his policy, his valour and generalship, and by the magnificence of his household.

Henry supposed that he could confidently rely on his support, and in 1162 appointed him archbishop of Canterbury, the head of the English church. But no sooner was he installed in his new office, than his conduct entirely changed. He relinquished all his splendour; lived as an ascetic; and became the most strenuous supporter of the claims of the church. The king found himself opposed

and baffled at every turn by the able and enthusiastic prelate. At a great council, however, held at Clarendon, in 1164, many amendments were made in the existing system, and provision was made for the trial of ecclesiastics in the civil courts. Conflicts between the crown and mitre still continued, and Becket, finding the king too powerful for him, left the kingdom in disguise, and passed over into Flanders.

Protected by the Pope and Louis of France, he continued his haughty tone, and excommunicated all who had been concerned in the council of Clarendon. In 1170, by the mediation of Louis, an apparent reconciliation took place; and Becket returned to resume his former position. His obstinate and factious disposition, however, produced fresh troubles. The king, highly excited at his attacks, one day exclaimed: "Of the cowards who eat my bread, is there not one who will free me from this turbulent priest?" Four of his barons, hearing these words, secretly left the court, and hastened to Canterbury, where the primate was performing religious ceremonies and denouncing his enemies. They entered his room, attended by twelve knights, and required him to revoke the excommunication which he had lately pronounced on the king's partisans. This he obstinately refused to do; and soon after, following him into the church, the assassins despatched him with repeated blows before the altar. He died in his fifty-third year, a martyr to the cause of fanaticism, pride, and usurpation. He was canonized by the church, and his shrine at Canterbury was, for many centuries afterwards, the favourite resort of pilgrims from all parts of the island.

Meanwhile, some of Henry's adventurous subjects were laying the foundation of a new sovereignty in Ireland. The Irish, a Christianized but barbarous people, were, in the twelfth century, not much advanced beyond the Britons of the time of Cæsar. The Northmen, superior to these rude tribes, had founded some towns on the coast, and commenced a foreign intercourse. In the beginning of Henry's reign, the Pope, an Englishman, had authorized him, by a bull, to invade and take possession of the island It was at this time divided into five kingdoms—Desmond, Thomond, Connaught, Ulster, and Leinster. Dermot MacMorrough, king of Leinster, having carried off the wife of a chieftain, was compelled by the others to fly from the island. He took refuge with Henry at Guienne, in 1167, and offered to hold his kingdom in vassalage, if the king would restore him. The English sovereign authorized him to enlist his

subjects in the cause, and in 1169, with a small force of desperate adventurers, he landed in Ireland. Unable to resist the superior arms and skill of their Norman invaders, the Irish were defeated; and Dermot, unsatisfied with the recovery of his own kingdom, invited over the earl of Pembroke, called Strongbow, who married his daughter, and made further conquests. Dermot dying, Strongbow succeeded to his throne, and aimed at the conquest of all Ireland. He defeated Roderic, king of Connaught, the lord paramount of the island, with great slaughter; and Henry, fearing the formation of an independent kingdom, resolved to pass over into Ireland in person.

With a fleet of four hundred sail, he landed near Waterford in 1172, and received the submission of almost the entire nation. In a great council at Dublin, attended by the Irish princes, he settled the state, and the following year returned, leaving Hugh de Lucy chief justice, and permitting Strongbow to retain a great part of his possessions. Though the conquerors were spread throughout the island, the two races never coalesced, and for several centuries Ireland presented a miserable spectacle of oppression, anarchy, and civil war.

After these successes, the king received absolution for the death of Becket from the Pope, who for some time had been holding an excommunication over his head. From this time, family dissensions rendered his life an unhappy one. His sons, Henry, Richard, and Geoffrey, on whom England and the French provinces had been settled, demanded that they should be put in possession of their territories; and, on his refusal, fled to the court of Louis, and organized an extensive confederacy against him. The kings of France and Scotland, and the earls of Flanders, Blois, and Boulogne, moved by ambition and jealousy, all supported the impudent demands of these undutiful princes.

The king prepared for resistance; he induced the Pope to excommunicate his enemies, and hired twenty thousand mercenaries to augment his forces. Normandy was the scene of conflict, and after some indecisive actions, the unfortunate king offered to surrender to his sons half the revenues of the kingdoms they demanded. This negotiation being broken off, he returned to England, where Richard de Lucy, guardian of the kingdom, was defending it bravely against revolt and Scottish invasion. The king, proceeding to the shrine of Becket, declared his innocence of the saint's death, and submitted to a flagellation by the monks. News immediately came that the king of Scots, who, with eighty thousand men, had again

the expedition by every possible expedient, even surrendering Berwick and Roxburgh to the Scottish king; and answered to those who remonstrated, that he would sell the city of London, if he could find a purchaser.

Having appointed governors for the kingdom, and loaded his brother John with titles and possessions, he departed for Palestine. Just before this, however, the fierce Crusaders made a fresh attack upon the unfortunate Jews, great numbers of whom were massacred throughout the kingdom.

During the sixteen months which he spent in the East, Richard acquired the highest renown by his valour and exploits against the Saracens. Unable, however, from the defection of his allies, to gain possession of Jerusalem, he made a treaty with Saladin, the chivalrous sultan of Egypt and Syria, and in 1192 embarked from Acre.

Meanwhile, great disorders prevailed in England. The bishops of Durham and Ely, who had been left in charge of the kingdom, disagreed, and the former was imprisoned by the latter, who assumed the most regal state and authority. Philip of France invaded Normandy, and subdued a portion of it; and John, giving out that his brother was dead, attempted to seize the throne for himself.

The king, while travelling through Germany, had been treacherously seized and imprisoned by the archduke of Austria; and his place of confinement was for a long time unknown. At length his captors agreed to release him for a ransom of an hundred thousand marks; and after more than a year's captivity, he regained his kingdom. On learning of his liberation, Philip wrote to John in these words: "Take heed to yourself, for the devil is unchained."

After being recrowned, (to efface the stain of captivity,) Richard set out for the continent, to defend his dominions from the king of France. His brother John, with characteristic treachery, massacred the French officers and garrison of Evreux, where he was staying; and then seeking his brother, obtained pardon for his former treasons. The war was continued, with brief intermissions, until the death of Richard, which occurred in 1199. While besieging the castle of Châluz, whose owner had refused to surrender an accidentally-discovered treasure, he was wounded by a bolt from a cross-bow. The injury proved mortal, and Richard, having expressed much penitence, and at his own desire undergone a severe flagellation from the clergy, expired in the forty-second year of his age; leaving a lasting reputation for courage, rashness, and violence.

Though Arthur, duke of Brittany, and son of Geoffrey, was the next heir to the throne, Richard bequeathed it to his brother John; who secured the treasure, as usual, and, after some hesitation, was crowned at Westminster. Arthur, supported by Philip, at first maintained his own pretensions; but being abandoned by him, was obliged to relinquish them, and do homage for Brittany to his uncle.

In 1202, Arthur, supported by Philip, whose daughter he had married, again laid claim to the French provinces; but was defeated, imprisoned, and finally assassinated in secret, probably by the hand of John himself. Philip continued hostilities, and, aided by the universal horror occasioned by this crime, succeeded in wresting from John all his continental domains, except Guienne.

The weak and cruel monarch was next involved in a quarrel with Pope Innocent III., arising out of a private ecclesiastical dispute between certain monks. Refusing to submit, his kingdom was laid under an interdict, which he revenged by despoiling the clergy and imprisoning their concubines until large sums were paid for their ransom. He sought aid from the emperor of Morocco, and even offered to turn Mahometan, if he would assist him against the Pope. The latter, in 1209, next tried an excommunication, and finally issued a sentence of deposition against him, the execution of which he intrusted to Philip, promising the crown of England and the forgiveness of his sins as the reward.

Great preparations were made by both princes; but just as the war was about to commence, John, infinitely to the disappointment of Philip, made a mean submission to the Pope, surrendering all his possessions to him and to his successors, and agreeing to hold them by annual payment of a thousand marks. The clergy, moreover, brought in an immense bill for damages, which he was compelled to satisfy.

Fresh troubles awaited him. The barons, headed by the primate Langton, after vainly demanding pledges for the future reform of abuses, assembled a force, and made war upon the king

John, finding the whole kingdom arrayed against him, was compelled to accede to their demands; and on the 19th of June, 1215, at Runnymead, signed what is called "The Great Charter," the most important instrument in English history. By this celebrated writing, the rights of the church and nobility were defined and secured; the cities were assured their ancient privileges, and exemption from arbitrary taxation; foreign merchants were protected; and it was

provided that no man should be imprisoned or outlawed, except "by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land." Other important matters were also settled. The benefits which have been derived from Magna Charta, the foundation of the British constitution, are almost incalculable. It was the first and most prominent of a long series of patriotic measures, defining and securing the liberty of the subject against arbitrary power.

John, whose rage at this compulsion had been indescribable, prepared for revenge. He enlisted great numbers of foreign mercenaries; the Pope absolved him from his oath, and excommunicated his enemies, declaring them to be worse than Saracens. He marched through the northern counties and part of Scotland, ravaging, burning, and murdering all before him, while the earl of Salisbury did the same in the east. The barons applied for aid to France, and Prince Louis, with six hundred and eighty vessels, landed at Sandwich. The afflicted nation was, however, spared further hostilities by the death of John, which occurred shortly after, in 1216, in the forty-ninth year of his age. He died of a surfeit, leaving a character unsurpassed for meanness, cruelty, and treachery.

Henry III., his son, was but ten years of age when crowned, and the earl of Pembroke, a man of great worth, talent, and energy, was appointed "governor of the king and kingdom." The Great Charter was confirmed, and Louis, who still attempted to gain the throne, was defeated, and compelled to leave the kingdom. Pembroke dying in 1219, Hubert de Burgh, the justiciary, contrived to engross all power into his own hands for several years; but was finally deposed and imprisoned. Peter des Roches, a Poitevin, bishop of Winchester, succeeded him in the royal favour; but, filling all offices with his own countrymen, was overthrown and banished by the archbishop of Canterbury. The king made two attempts, in 1230 and in 1242, to regain his French domains, but unsuccessfully, and at last formally renounced them.

Henry, a feeble-minded prince, relied almost entirely on the Pope, who, in his turn, contrived, under various pretexts, to drain the kingdom yearly of immense sums of money. The barons, indignant at the large amounts sent out of the country, on one occasion, in 1243, made a demand for fresh security against misapplication of supplies; and, in 1248, absolutely refused to grant him any whatever.

At length, Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, and other great barons of the realm, formed a fresh confederacy to limit the royal

authority. The king was compelled to submit, and a grand council was held at Oxford on the 11th of June, 1258. This assembly took all power into its own hands, and enacted many resolutions limiting the royal prerogative. The barons, however, became so unpopular, that in 1261 the king resumed his full authority, and rēappointed the principal officers of the kingdom, who had been displaced by the council.

In 1263 Leicester, who had gone to France, returned, and rēorganized the confederacy. They took up arms, and once more compelled the king to resign his resumed authority. He, however, took the field again, and after further engagements, the questions in dispute were submitted to the arbitration of the king of France (1264). This being in favour of the king, the barons refused to abide by it, and resumed their arms. The king, supported by many of the great families in Scotland and the north of England, assembled an army, and a bloody engagement took place at Lewes, in which the king's party were entirely defeated. Five thousand are said to have fallen on either side.

Leicester was now the actual ruler of the kingdom, and used his power with great tyranny and rapacity. He carried the king about with him, treating him with a semblance of respect, and using his name and authority to fortify his own acts.

The year 1265 is memorable for the foundation of the British Parliament. The Grand Council had hitherto consisted only of the barons, prelates, and tenants of the crown; but Leicester, on this occasion, (probably to secure a majority of supporters,) directed the election of "two knights for each county, two citizens for each city, and two burgesses for each borough," thus for the first time establishing the principle of representation from the people.

The king and Prince Edward were still kept in custody; but the latter, while riding out with his attendants, escaped on a fleet horse, and, assisted by the earl of Gloucester and other barons, commenced hostilities against Leicester. In a great battle which ensued at Evesham, the old king, cased in armour, was placed by Leicester in the front rank; and being unhorsed and wounded, cried out, "I am Henry of Winchester." The prince, hearing his voice, ran to his assistance, and conveyed him to a place of safety. Leicester and his son were slain; and their army was utterly defeated. The memory of Leicester was long cherished by the people, who showed their estimate of his character by the title of "Sir Simon the Righteous."

The power of the confederate barons was completely broken; and the royalists, following up their advantage, under Prince Edward, reduced all disaffected parts of the kingdom to submission. The prince then sailed for Palestine to join the Crusaders; and during his absence the king died, November 20th, 1272, in the sixty-fourth year of his age and the fifty-sixth of his reign. His character was not marked by any distinguishing traits; and his long reign offers few incidents of personal interest. During his time, the trial by ordeal was abolished, and a stand was commenced against the encroachments of the Church.

CHAPTER VIII.

EDWARD I., EDWARD II., AND EDWARD III.

PRINCE EDWARD, with a small force, had sustained the fame of Cœur de Lion in the East; but, overpowered by numbers, was compelled to make a treaty of peace. On his way home, he learned of the death of his father, and after remaining a year in Guienne, settling disturbances, he reached his kingdom, and was crowned, at the age of thirty-six.

His first enterprise was against Llewellyn, prince of Wales, who had joined the barons in the late rebellion, and who now refused to appear and do homage to the crown. In 1277, the king entered his country with an army, while his fleet commanded the coast, and Llewellyn, imprisoned in the barren regions of Snowden, was compelled to submit, upon severe terms. These, however, the king remitted, and thinking the subjugation of Wales complete, retired.

Soon after, the Welsh, impatient of the English laws, and encouraged by a prophecy of the enchanter Merlin, again revolted throughout the country, and Edward hastened to the scene of action. After meeting some reverses, he again defeated them; Llewellyn was slain; and the other chiefs made their submission. The king remained more than a year in Wales, erecting fortresses, and establishing the English system of government. The queen,

at this time, gave birth to a son at Caernarvon, whom Edward, to conciliate his new subjects, declared to be "Prince of Wales," a title which has ever since been borne by the heir-apparent to the British throne.

After some years, spent in domestic legislation and on the continent, the affairs of Scotland attracted his attention, and employed the remainder of his reign.

In 1286, Alexander III. had died; and the "Maid of Norway," his grand-daughter, was the next in succession. She was betrothed to the son of Edward, but dying in 1290, no less than thirteen pretenders to the throne started up. To avoid an appeal to arms, it was determined by the barons, in 1291, to refer the decision to the king of England.

He readily accepted the office of arbitrator, and advanced with a large army to the frontier. Before making his award, however, he first required that they should acknowledge his right as feudal lord of Scotland. After some hesitation, the various parties interested signed an instrument to that effect, and all the royal castles and fortresses were put into the hands of Edward. After examining the various claims, he pronounced judgment in favour of John Baliol, a descendant of the royal line, and, restoring the fortresses into his hands, gave him complete possession of the kingdom.

The king of England soon found himself engaged in hostilities with France; but ere he quitted the kingdom, difficulties in Wales and Scotland induced him to remain. The first he effectually subdued, and, Baliol refusing to acknowledge his sovereignty, he marched with a large army to the frontiers of the latter in 1296. The Scots, to draw him away, made an inroad into Cumberland; but, disregarding this, he attacked Berwick, carried it by assault, and put its garrison of seven thousand men to the sword. Warrenne, earl of Surrey, also gained a great victory at Dunbar, leaving ten thousand of the Scots dead upon the field. The whole kingdom now submitted, and Baliol in person made a formal surrender of his kingdom.

Edward marched through the country, held a parliament, received the homage of the nation, and returned to England; leaving Warrenne guardian of the kingdom, and filling the principal offices with Englishmen. Baliol was taken in honourable captivity to London.

The king then crossed the sea with a large army, and, without much hostility, a treaty was concluded, by which Guienne was restored, and he married a sister of the French monarch.

Meanwhile, a fresh insurrection broke out in Scotland, headed by William Wallace, a man of gigantic stature, and of great courage and patriotism. His successes increased his ranks; and some of the most eminent persons in Scotland joined his standard. By Edward's orders, Warrenne, who had left the country, raised a large army, and advanced to Stirling. Nearly all the chiefs hastened to make submission; but Wallace and Moray, with a large force, engaged the English earl at Cambuskenneth, defeated him with great slaughter, and compelled him to withdraw into England. They followed up their advantage by ravaging the northern counties of the enemy.

The brave Wallace was made guardian of the kingdom, and summoned a parliament. But his success, though brilliant, was transitory. Edward returned, and in 1298 invaded Scotland with a force of eighty seven thousand men. In a great battle at Falkirk, the Scots were entirely routed, with a loss, at the lowest computation, of fifteen thousand men. Wallace escaped, but found himself destitute of means to make an effectual resistance.

The country was again partially conquered, and in 1301, the Pope having interfered in behalf of Scotland, a truce was made for a time, while the questions in issue were debated. In 1303, Edward determined on the final reduction of the kingdom, and despatched an army of twenty thousand men, which, however, was defeated. The king then marched with a force too great to be resisted, and overran the country. Comyn, the guardian of the kingdom, and the nobles submitted. Wallace alone still resisted, but being treacherously betrayed, was carried to London, tried, and executed, on a fictitious charge of treason. The memory of this champion has always been exceedingly dear to the Scottish nation, and many remarkable stories are related of his strength and courage.

In the next year, 1305, the various places of trust were divided between the natives and the English; the Scottish laws were allowed, and Edward supposed his conquest finally secured. But in four months, the Scots again rose in insurrection, having for their leader Robert Bruce, a descendant of the royal line of Scotland. He was crowned at Scone, but was soon defeated, and compelled to take refuge in the Isle of Rathlin, near Ireland.

In 1307, he reappeared, and gained some advantages. Edward assembled a large army, but before he had proceeded far, died, worn out with age and infirmities, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign. He had previously engaged his son

and the English nobles, by a solemn oath, to prosecute the war to extremity. This monarch possessed greater talents than any prince who had yet worn the crown of England; he had a strong regard for justice; and much of his oppressive conduct in Wales and Scotland was, in that day, held to be justified by the feudal law.

In his reign, by the influence of the barons, the charters were confirmed, and a clause added, securing the nation against taxation, except by consent of parliament. The present constitution of the latter was also fully established. Many improvements, moreover, were made in the laws, and in the jurisdiction of courts.

Edward II. succeeded his father at the age of twenty-two. For some years he did but little in fulfilling his father's wishes in regard to Scotland. The early part of his reign was troubled by the jealousy and anger manifested by the great barons against his favourite, Piers Gaveston, a Gascon, to whom he was strongly attached, and whom he had loaded with offices and honours. After several times compelling the king to dismiss him, and as often seeing him rēcalled, in 1312 they seized the unfortunate favourite, and beheaded him near Warwick.

Meanwhile, Bruce had gradually made himself master of all the English strongholds in Scotland. In 1314 Edward, with a large army, marched against him, and engaged the Scottish forces at Bannockburn, near Stirling Castle. Bruce, with forty thousand men, had occupied an advantageous position, which he further strengthened by deep pits in front of his line, filled with sharp stakes, and covered with turf. *Calthrops*, or sharp-pointed frames of iron, were also scattered over the ground on which the enemy's cavalry must charge.

On the 24th of June, the English, with a much superior force, advanced to the attack, and seeing the Scottish ranks upon their knees, supposed at first that they were demanding mercy. They were speedily undeceived; the resistance was most obstinate, and the English suffered a ruinous defeat, to which the appearance of a great number of the Scottish camp-followers, mistaken by them for another army, somewhat contributed.

A dreadful famine and pestilence in England succeeded this disaster, and Bruce continuing the warfare, recovered Berwick, and rendered his kingdom independent. Edward's attachment to a new favourite, Hugh le Despencer, again excited the jealousy of the barons, who rose in arms, but after a protracted contest, were defeated, and many of them executed.

In 1325, Queen Isabella, sister to the king of France, went to that court, with the prince, her son, for the purpose of arranging certain difficulties respecting the French provinces. While there, she formed a criminal connection with Roger Mortimer, one of the revolted barons, who had escaped. She delayed her return under various pretexts, and finally, instigated by her paramour, with a force of some thousand men, sailed for England, with the intention of forcibly suppressing the power of the Despencers. On landing, she was joined by many of the barons, with numerous forces, and Edward was compelled to fly from London. The Despencers, father and son, were captured, and ignominiously executed, on the most frivolous charges.

The unhappy king, closely pursued, surrendered himself, and the barons declared the young prince guardian of the kingdom. Soon after, his father was formally deposed, and nearly all the peers took an oath of allegiance to the youthful heir. The dethroned monarch, after being carried from castle to castle, and treated with great indignity, was barbarously murdered at Berkley, on the 21st of September, 1327.

Mortimer was made earl of March, and the kingdom was entirely governed by him and the queen. Bruce, though a truce had been agreed upon, invaded the north of England with twenty-four thousand men, and committed grievous ravages. An army of forty thousand, which was sent against him, under the young king, was unable to come to an engagement; and, in the following year, 1328, a peace was concluded, in which the independence of Scotland was fully acknowledged.

Mortimer, having all power in his own hands, ruled with great insolence, and the young king, now eighteen, was impatient of his control. In 1330, assisted by Lord Montacute and others, he seized the traitor, assumed the throne, and summoned a parliament. By this body, Mortimer was found guilty of the late king's death, and of other offences, was condemned, and executed. The queen was confined to her private residence.

In 1332, Bruce being dead, the English claimants of Scottish lands put Edward Baliol (the son of John) at their head, and made an inroad into Scotland. They completely defeated the Scottish army, under the earl of Mar, with immense slaughter. Baliol, however, was soon expelled from the kingdom by the earl of Moray, and in 1333 Edward marched to his assistance. In the battle of Halidon

Hill, the Scots lost thirty thousand men; Berwick surrendered; and David, the young king, was compelled to fly into France.

Baliol was acknowledged sovereign, and the English supremacy was once more extended over Scotland. The Scots, however, rose again, and after a contest of some years, David returned, and in 1341 resumed his throne.

Edward's attention, however, was now engrossed by the crown of France, to which, in right of his mother, he had advanced an utterly unfounded claim. Having formed an alliance with several of the continental states, he invaded the French territory in 1339 with fifty thousand men, burning and plundering as he went. Philip, king of that country, also raised a large army, but no decisive engagement ensued, and Edward, disbanding his allies, returned to England, deeply in debt, having accomplished nothing.

In 1340, he renewed the war; and a large fleet which Philip had stationed at Sluys to oppose him, was destroyed or taken by that of the English, and thirty thousand of the French perished. His allies now crowded to his standard; and with a force of two hundred thousand men, he recommenced hostilities. A great body of these, however, taking a sudden alarm, fled. Tournay, strongly garrisoned, resisted his arms, and Philip appeared with a large army, but, as before, avoided a decisive engagement. By the mediation of Jane of Hainault, a relative of both monarchs, hostilities were suspended for nine months, and this period, by the intervention of the Pope, was afterwards extended.

The king's debts, and his disputes with the nobility and clergy of his realm, occupied him till 1342, when he made a fresh and ineffectual attempt.

In 1345, he induced the parliament to support him in another expedition, and despatched the earl of Derby with an army to Guienne. This general was exceedingly successful, and in 1346 Edward, with thirty thousand troops, went over in person. Forty thousand Flemings were to invade France at the same time. Landing in Normandy, he ravaged the country far and near. Thence marching up the left bank of the Seine, he burned many towns, and carried his incursions to the neighbourhood of Paris itself. Philip, with an army on the opposite shore, still protracted the war, avoiding a general engagement.

At length, on the 26th of August, the two armies met at Creci, or Cressy, a small village near the coast, the French force being

variously estimated at from sixty thousand to one hundred and twenty thousand men. In the midst of a violent storm the battle commenced. The result was for a long time doubtful, and the prince, a youth of fifteen, distinguished himself by his skill and valour. The English archery finally decided the day; thirty-six thousand of their enemies were left upon the field, including eleven princes, and a host of nobles and gentlemen. It has been said that cannon were, in this battle, for the first time employed in warfare, and that their use contributed greatly to the victory.

A few days afterwards Edward laid siege to Calais, which was bravely defended by the governor, John de Vienne. At length, overcome by famine, the town surrendered in July, 1847, Edward having stipulated for the death of six of the principal burgesses. Eustache de St. Pierre, and five others of the leading citizens, generously offered their lives as a ransom for their countrymen, and, according to usage, presented themselves before the victor, half-naked, with halters in their hands. He sternly commanded them to be led to execution, but at the entreaty of his queen, Philippa, was finally induced to spare their lives. The inhabitants were mostly expelled from Calais, and it was rēpeopled with English by the king, as a mart for his commerce.

Meanwhile, David of Scotland, taking advantage of the king's absence, had ravaged the north of England; but was defeated at Neville's Cross, in Durham, with a loss of fifteen thousand men; and, being taken prisoner, was carried in triumph to London, with several of his nobility.

Calais being captured, an armistice took place, which, by the influence of the Pope, was protracted for six years. In 1348 England, as well as the rest of Europe suffered from a dreadful plague, which carried off vast numbers of the inhabitants.

Negotiations being fruitless, the war with France was resumed in 1355, John having succeeded his father Philip on the throne. Edward the Black Prince, (so called from his armour,) who had already distinguished himself at Cressy and elsewhere, marched eastward from Bourdeaux, with sixty thousand men, wasting and ravaging the country, as usual. He returned from this expedition in seven weeks, having in that time destroyed more than five hundred cities, towns, and villages.

The king, who had also commenced an expedition from Calais, was rēcalled by hostilities which had broken out in Scotland, and

having purchased Baliol's claim to the throne, marched through the country, burning and devastating it in all directions.

In the autumn, the prince, with twelve thousand troops, set forth upon another marauding expedition, and near the town of Poictiers fell in with a large army, commanded by King John in person. The English archery, as usual, proved triumphant; the French were defeated, and King John himself, with his son Philip, after a disastrous battle was taken prisoner. The captive monarch was treated with the highest distinction, the prince waiting upon him in person, and, on their arrival in England, the castle of Windsor was assigned him for a residence.

The king of Scotland had now been eleven years a prisoner; but was set at liberty on payment of a hundred thousand marks, and the surrender of important hostages.

The French nobility rejecting the terms which had been offered for the liberation of their king, Edward, in 1359, with an hundred thousand men, again invaded France. After ravaging Picardy, and advancing to the gates of Paris, he was compelled to retire by the want of provisions; and a treaty was finally signed, by which it was agreed that he should resign all his pretensions, retaining only Poitou, Guienne, and Ponthieu, and the towns of Calais and Guisnes, and that three millions crowns of gold should be paid as a ransom for John.

Edward the Black Prince was next engaged in an expedition for the purpose of restoring Peter IV., king of Castile, to his throne. He was afterwards involved in war with Charles, who had succeeded his father John upon the throne, and being compelled by ill-health to return to England, the few possessions of that nation in France were mostly lost to her. He died in 1376, in the forty-sixth year of his age, leaving the highest reputation for magnanimity and chivalrous courage, though tinctured with the ferocity of the times. His son Richard was declared heir to the throne.

The king soon followed his son. He died the following year, like the Conqueror, plundered and deserted by his attendants in his last moments. His death occurred on the 21st of June, 1377, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, after a reign of fifty years.

The military renown and general success of this long and brilliant reign, have rendered the names of Edward III. and his son among the most prominent in English history. The constitution and the power of parliament profited by the very ambition of the king; for his

GARTER KING AT ARMS, CHIEF HERALD OF ENGLAND,
IN THE COSTUME OF THE TIME OF HENRY VIII

anxiety to gain supplies induced him to reform grievances, and more distinctly to acknowledge the rights of those on whom he depended.

It was thus fully established that money could not be raised without the votes of parliament; that the laws should not be altered, except by authority of both houses; and that the commons might impeach the high officers for misconduct. The laws of treason, which had heretofore been a potent instrument of royal oppression, were defined and limited nearly to their present form. The theory and practice of law were also wonderfully improved and polished.

Manufactures were encouraged, and foreign artisans invited to settle in England. The avaricious demands of the Pope were somewhat checked, and the project was even entertained of resisting his authority altogether. The castle of Windsor was built by Edward, and the renowned "Order of the Garter" was instituted by him.

CHAPTER IX.

RICHARD II., AND HENRY IV.

RICHARD, at the age of eleven, received the crown of his grandfather. A council of regency was appointed, and the war with France was slowly continued. A new poll-tax, levied for the purpose of carrying it on, gave rise in 1381 to a most dangerous insurrection. For a long time, great oppression of the poorer classes had prevailed; and the cultivators of the soil were mostly in a state of serfdom, similar to that of the Russians at the present day. By degrees, however, a spirit of freedom and resistance to tyranny had become generally diffused; and was first called into action by the outrageous insolence of the collectors of this tax.

In Kent and Essex, the people rose in great numbers, and under three leaders, Wat the Tyler, John Ball, a priest, and another who assumed the name of Jack Straw, took up their march for London, pillaging the country as they went, and cutting off the heads of all lawyers, justices, and jurors. They arrived at the capital, one hundred thousand strong, broke open the prisons, and plundered the

palaces of several of the nobility. The city was completely in their power, and if any one refused to join in crying out their watch-word, his head was immediately struck off. The young king met them at Mile End, and listened to their demands.

These were, the abolition of slavery, and the services of villanage, freedom from market-tolls, and a general pardon. These terms were at once acceded to; and the multitude dispersed, and returned to their homes. During this conference, however, Wat Tyler had broken into the town, and murdered the treasurer, the archbishop, and other obnoxious persons.

As Richard, the next day, rode through the city with a small train, he encountered Tyler in Smithfield, at the head of twenty thousand men. The popular leader, riding up to the king, commenced a conference; but, as he seized the royal bridle, was stabbed by Walworth the Lord Mayor. The youthful king, with great presence of mind, galloped to the head of his tumultuary forces, pacified them, and dismissed them to their homes.

The nobles and gentry now rallied around the king with a force of forty thousand men; and in compliance with their advice, he revoked the charters which he had lately granted, and executed fifteen hundred of the insurgents.

In the year 1384, the Scots, with a body of French auxiliaries, having made an incursion into England, the king, at the head of eighty thousand men, marched into Scotland, and laid it waste.

In 1386, the parliament and nobles, excited by the duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, insisted on the removal of his ministers, and after fruitless opposition, he was compelled to yield. A commission of fourteen lords and prelates, with Gloucester at its head, was also appointed to regulate the affairs of the kingdom for a year.

The king, enraged at this compulsion, took private measures for revenge; but Gloucester and his party, with forty thousand men, overawed all movements in his favour. In 1388, a parliament being summoned, several of the accused ministers and their adherents were ignominiously executed. Gloucester and his party held their power about a year longer; but becoming unpopular, the king was enabled to dismiss them, and take the government into his own hands.

For eight years he ruled without opposition; and seemed reconciled to the duke and his adherents. In 1394, he visited Ireland with a large force, and received the homage of the English and the native chiefs. Three years afterwards, however, Richard, who had

never forgiven the dictatorship of his uncle Gloucester, had him arrested and conveyed to Calais; and other distinguished nobles who had belonged to his faction were tried, and exiled or beheaded. The death of the duke himself, in prison, was also shortly given out, and there can be little doubt that he was murdered by command of the king.

Having strengthened his position by distributing titles and honours among his relations and supporters, the king began to exhibit a stronger and more arbitrary will. He maintained ten thousand archers; and the nobles, viewing his treachery and revengeful disposition, began to feel unsafe, and to meditate a change.

He removed, as he supposed, in 1398, the last of his powerful enemies, by banishing from England the dukes of Norfolk and Hereford, the latter being the son of his uncle, the duke of Lancaster, and both formerly adherents of Gloucester.

His position was now that of an absolute monarch. As a perpetual subsidy had been granted him, he was under no necessity for calling or conciliating parliaments; but by his forced loans, and other acts of oppression, he completely alienated the affections of his people.

They now began to turn their thoughts to his exiled cousin, Henry duke of Hereford. This feeling was enhanced by the injustice of Richard, who, on the death of Lancaster, instead of allowing his estates to descend to Hereford, seized them for himself.

While the king was absent on an expedition to Ireland, in 1399, the banished duke landed in Yorkshire, and averring that he only sought to recover his rights, was joined by the powerful earls of Westmoreland and Northumberland. The duke of York, Richard's uncle, who had been left as regent, at first assembled a force to oppose him; but after an interview with Hereford, (also his nephew,) joined forces with him. Their army, numbering an hundred thousand, appeared before Bristol; the castle surrendered, and some of Richard's favourites were executed without even the formality of a trial.

The king, on learning the disastrous intelligence, sent over the earl of Salisbury, and ere long followed to Wales in person; but his army deserted in all directions, and he was compelled to despatch messengers to Henry to learn his intentions. The latter artfully feigned submission, on certain conditions, and thus induced the king to trust himself in his hands; Richard, however, privately assuring his friends of the terrible revenge which he would take at some

future time. On beholding the immense force of his enemy, and finding himself a prisoner, he broke into weeping and lamentation.

Henry received him with a mixture of respect and severity, compelled him to issue a summons for a parliament, and took him close prisoner to London, where he was lodged in the tower. Here threats and promises were successfully used to induce him to resign the crown; and he assented to an act of abdication, appointing the duke of Hereford his successor.

On the 29th of September, both houses met in Westminster Hall. The act of resignation was read, thirty-three articles of impeachment were preferred, and the deposition of Richard was unanimously voted. Henry then publicly claimed the throne, and his demand was at once admitted as valid.

There can be no doubt that the dethronement of Richard, and the elevation of Henry of Bolingbroke, was the result of universal popular feeling throughout England; and the latter may therefore be regarded as the rightful occupant of the throne, and the house of Lancaster as his rightful successors.

The dethroned monarch was only thirty-four years of age; and it was resolved by the lords that he should be kept in close custody. The zeal of certain of his adherents hastened the fate which usually awaits captive princes. An insurrection in his favour was set on foot in 1400, but was speedily suppressed, and the leaders were mostly executed. The death of Richard himself was announced soon afterwards, and it was generally supposed that he had been starved to death by order of the king. Other accounts say that he was murdered by Sir Piers of Exton, who came to his prison with seven followers, and slew him after a desperate defence, in which he killed several of his assailants. However this may be, there can hardly be a doubt that he was taken off, in some manner, by the authority of Henry.

With John Wickliffe, who died in the reign of Richard, commenced the first movement for a reformation in the church. He preached fiercely against the doctrine of transubstantiation, against indulgences, pardons, excommunications, and other abuses of the papal authority. A number of bulls were issued against him from Rome, and he was compelled to answer for his heresies before an ecclesiastical tribunal; but, by a dexterous evasion, and supported by some of the leading nobles, he escaped with tolerable impunity, and died in retirement in 1384. Thirty years afterwards, his remains,

by an order of the council of Constance, were dug up, burned, and thrown into the river Swift. His doctrines, however, spread widely, and his followers, who were remarkable for the austerity of their morals, received the name of Lollards, derived, it is said, from the Dutch *Lollen*, "to sing."

Parliament, immediately after the elevation of Henry, proceeded to confer on his eldest son the title of Prince of Wales, and in other ways to strengthen the authority of the new dynasty. He claimed the homage of Scotland, and not receiving it, advanced with an army as far as Edinburgh; but was compelled to retire by the want of supplies. A border-war was, however, kept up, and in 1402, the earl of Douglas, with ten thousand men, having marched into England, was encountered at Homildon by the earl of Northumberland, with his son Henry Percy, called Hotspur, and was defeated and made prisoner.

In the next year, 1403, a Welsh gentleman, named Owen Glendour, being aggrieved, took the law into his own hands, and was outlawed. He immediately declared himself sovereign of Wales; his countrymen flocked to his standard; his reputation as a magician confirming his authority among the credulous inhabitants. The king, Prince Henry, and other leaders, repeatedly attempted the conquest of the rebellious province, but were in every instance compelled to retire by the weather, the natural difficulties of the country, and the skill and valour of their foe. To add to the king's embarrassment, Northumberland, with his son and brother, irritated by ill-treatment, formed a hostile confederacy with Glendour, Douglas, and other renowned nobles. With a large force they marched toward Wales, and encountered Henry at Shrewsbury. On the 21st of July, the two armies, each about fourteen thousand in number, engaged. Hotspur and Douglas, with sixty followers, plunged into the centre of the royal forces, seeking the king's person, and killed four of his friends, who had assumed his arms to baffle the assailants. Percy fell by a chance arrow; Douglas was made prisoner, and after a contest of three hours, victory was decided in favour of the king. Both armies suffered great loss. Several of the captive nobles were executed, but Northumberland received a pardon, and Douglas was honourably treated.

Fresh insurrections succeeded. In 1405, Archbishop Scrope, Northumberland, and others raised a force of eight thousand men, and announced their intention of dethroning the king. By the arti-

fice of Prince John, they were induced to lay down their arms, and the leaders were then seized and beheaded. Wales was gradually reduced to submission; but Owen Glendour still held out in the mountainous and inaccessible regions, and retained his independence during his life.

At this time, accident threw a fresh advantage into the hands of Henry, by which he meanly profited. James, the heir to the Scottish throne, sailing to France, when only nine years old, was captured by an English cruiser. The king detained him as prisoner, and was thus enabled to control the dishonest regent of Scotland, by threatening to release the rightful claimant to the throne. The prince, however, was carefully and liberally educated.

No events of much importance occurred during the remainder of this reign. The king was frequently rendered uneasy by the wildness and dissipation of his son Prince Henry, who, though brave and talented, chose to associate with low and riotous companions. One of these having been arrested, and brought before Gascoigne, the chief justice, the prince interceded for his release; and the request being refused, drew his sword, or, as others say, dealt the judge a box upon the ear. The latter instantly ordered him to be committed to jail, to which the prince, probably struck with shame, promptly submitted. The king, on being informed of the circumstance, exclaimed, "Happy the monarch who has a judge so resolute in discharge of his duty, and a son so willing to submit to the laws!"

Henry died on the 20th of March, 1413, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign. His abilities were great, though his character is deeply stained by the murder of his royal kinsman. The horrible writ, "*de hæretico comburendo*," for burning heretics, was introduced in his reign, and several of the Lollards fell victims to the persecution of the priests. The commons took advantage of his wish to conciliate them, to gain additional privileges, and, among others, that of freedom from arrest. They also established their right to appropriate, as well as to vote supplies. As a proof of the less absolute authority of the clergy with the people, we may observe that the commons once recommended Henry to seize great part of the church possessions for the public revenue; but the king, well aware of the value of the clerical support, peremptorily refused compliance.

CHAPTER X.

HENRY V., AND HENRY VI.

THE national joy at the accession of the young and popular prince was enhanced by the reformation of his manners, and the judicious commencement of his reign. The increasing persecution of the Lollards alone rendered the aspect of affairs unpromising. The most notable and able convert to the new doctrines was Sir John Oldcastle, Baron of Cobham, whom the king in person undertook to convince of his error. Remaining firm, he was consigned to the authority of the bishops, and was found guilty of heresy. Before the execution of his sentence, however, he escaped from the tower, and, with others of his party, formed, it is alleged, a conspiracy against the crown. This was frustrated, and thirty-nine of the prisoners taken on this occasion, were executed as traitors and heretics, with the most atrocious cruelty. Four years afterwards, Cobham, who had fled into Wales, was captured, and shared the same fate.

France was at this period in a most distracted condition. The king, Charles VI., being subject to fits of insanity, the control of affairs was disputed between his brother the duke of Orleans, and his cousin the duke of Burgundy. The former was assassinated by the latter, and Henry, taking advantage of the defenceless state of the country, advanced his claim to the crown. This being rejected, he demanded Normandy, Maine, and Anjou, also making other extravagant claims; and though splendid offers were made him, he prepared for war.

A treasonable scheme among some of the high nobles of his realm interrupted the king's preparations; but the conspirators were speedily apprehended, condemned, and executed.

On the 14th of August, 1415, he landed with fifteen hundred vessels at the mouth of the Seine, and disembarked thirty thousand men, four-fifths of whom were archers. After a siege of five weeks, he took Harfleur, but his army was meantime reduced by sickness and fighting to one-half of its original number. However, the king resolved to march to Calais, and on the 25th of October, encountered a French army of fifty thousand horse, near Azincourt. The

English archery, as usual, created great confusion among the ranks of their enemies; and taking advantage of this, the undaunted bowmen, with their swords and battle-axes, rushed into the first division of the French, and entirely routed it, killing the principal officers. After a long contest, victory remained with the English. Their adversaries had lost their bravest leaders, and an immense number of knights and soldiers. After remaining a short time in Calais, the king returned to England, amid the enthusiastic rejoicings of his subjects.

His brother, the duke of Bedford, carried on the war, and in 1417 the king, with an army of sixteen thousand men-at-arms, and as many archers, landed in Lower Normandy; which, during the winter and following spring, he entirely reduced. Meanwhile, the Burgundian faction, with whom he had negotiated, seized upon Paris, and massacred all who opposed them. The successes of Henry, however, alarmed both parties, and they rēunited to save the country. An interview with the invader was proposed; and on the 30th of May, 1419, the duke of Burgundy, with the queen and Princess Catharine, met him near Meulant.

Henry, captivated by the grace and beauty of the princess, became more accessible to proposals for peace, demanding, however, Normandy, and certain other provinces. The negotiations were artfully protracted by the French for a whole month; and in the mean time the dauphin (heir to the crown) and the duke of Burgundy came to an agreement, and resolved to turn their arms against the common enemy.

Henry's prospects, now apparently gloomy, were revived by the murder of the duke, who was treacherously despatched by the attendants of the dauphin at an interview with the latter. His heir hastened to conclude a treaty with King Henry, who was thus enabled to dictate his own terms. These were, the hand of the Princess Catharine, the regency of France during the king's life-time, and the crown at his death. These severe conditions were acceded to by the helpless monarch, and the marriage shortly after took place.

The states general approved the treaty, and in 1421 Henry, with his bride, returned to England. His brother, the duke of Clarence, whom he had left in command of Normandy, attempting an expedition into Anjou, which remained faithful to the dauphin, was defeated by the Marshal La Fayette, assisted by seven thousand Scots. On learning of this disaster the king, with twenty-eight thousand troops,

instantly returned to France, defeated the dauphin, drove him to Bourges, and gained possession of all France north of the Loire, except Anjou and Maine.

His victories ended here; for in the same year, he was seized with a distemper incurable by the ignorance of the day, and died in the tenth year of his reign, and the thirty-fourth of his age, leaving an infant of nine months heir to the crown. The brilliant successes of this prince have rendered his name very dear to the English. His abilities were undoubted, but the stain of cruelty will always cling to his memory.

His queen, Catharine, after his death, married a Welsh gentleman, Sir Owen Tudor. Their descendants afterwards sat upon the throne of England.

During the minority of the new king, Henry VI., parliament appointed a council of regency, with John, duke of Bedford, the late king's brother, at its head, under the title of Protector; and Burgundy having declined the regency of France, that also was conferred upon him. Within two months, the French king died. His son, the dauphin, instantly assumed the title of Charles VII., and was crowned and anointed. The duke of Bedford, in alliance with Burgundy and Brittany, continued the war, and gained important successes.

At this time Earl Douglas, with five thousand men, having gone to the assistance of Charles, it was thought advisable to dismiss King James of Scotland, on payment of the sum of forty thousand pounds, and a promise to forbid his subjects from entering the service of France. To these conditions he acceded, and, after nineteen years of captivity, returned to his country; where he proved the ablest monarch who had ever sat upon the Scottish throne.

In 1424 Bedford, with seven thousand men, defeated an army of more than double the number, under the constable of France, at Verneuil. Sixteen hundred of the English fell, and three thousand of their opponents—among them, the constable and Earl Douglas. For some years after this, the war languished for want of means on both sides; but in 1429, the city of Orleans was besieged by the English, and its fall seemed inevitable. At this gloomy period of French history, when Charles even thought of retiring into exile, a new and extraordinary person appeared upon the stage, and raised his fallen fortunes.

In a small village of Champagne dwelt a peasant named Jacques

D'Arc, whose daughter, Joan, was remarkable for her piety and abstraction of mind. From long dwelling on the misfortunes of her country, she began to see visions, and finally imagined that the saints appeared to her, and urged her to undertake the defence of France. Obtaining an interview with Charles, she so far impressed him with belief in her divine mission, that a council of clergy and divines was appointed to examine the case at Poictiers. They pronounced her to be inspired, and, mounted on a splendid gray charger, she repaired to the camp at Blois. A secret religious terror seized the minds of the English, which was increased when she led the French army to Orleans, and, fighting valiantly at their head, compelled the invaders to retire.

After losing a number of posts, they retreated towards Paris, under Lord Talbot; but were overtaken and defeated, with a loss of twelve hundred men. In compliance with the vision of the heroic Maid of Orleans, (as she was now called,) Charles set out for Rheims, and was there solemnly crowned in the manner of his ancestors. She now declared that her mission was performed, and entreated permission to return to her native village. The king, however, induced her to remain; ennobled the family; and conferred a large pension upon her.

The dukes of Bedford and Burgundy, though disheartened, continued hostilities, and the Maid still opposed them with great skill and courage; but in 1430 was captured in a skirmish by some of the troops of the latter, and sold for a large price to the duke of Bedford. Being examined before an ecclesiastical tribunal, composed of the creatures of the English, she was condemned as a heretic, and, to the eternal disgrace of the English name, was burned at Rouen, on the 30th of May, 1431.

This piece of cruelty was of no service to its authors. The protracted war which succeeded, was mostly to the disadvantage of the English. After various attempts at negotiation, the duke of Burgundy made peace with France; and finally, in 1435, Bedford, the able leader of the English, died. Paris opened its gates to the French, and the duke of Burgundy took up arms in their behalf. Lord Talbot and other of the English leaders still stubbornly maintained the contest; but in 1444, an armistice for two years was agreed on.

Meanwhile, the youthful king of England had been advancing to man's estate, and displaying little capacity. His temper was mild

and thoughtful, but he was evidently ill-adapted to govern a great and spirited nation. Cardinal Beaufort and the duke of Gloucester, his nephew and the king's uncle, divided the power, and were bitterly at variance. It was probably at the instance of the former that the duchess, in 1441, was accused of treason and sorcery. She was said to have made, with her accomplices, a waxen image of the king, and exposed it to a gentle heat, that his majesty might pine away and die, and the duke (his next heir) succeed to the throne. Her confederates were executed, and she was compelled to do public penance, and was then consigned to custody for life.

Through the cardinal's influence, Henry, in his twenty-fourth year, was married to Margaret, daughter of René, a nominal king, to whom Anjou and Maine, which he held in title, were resigned. Beautiful, spirited, and accomplished, she entirely ruled the king, and Beaufort, Somerset, and Norfolk, her favourites, ruled the kingdom.

In 1447, Gloucester was arrested on a charge of treason, and shortly afterwards was found dead in his bed. It is asserted that he was murdered by his enemies. Much of his estate went to the duke of Suffolk; and other circumstances seemed to prove the connivance of the court. He was generally lamented, the title of "Good Duke Humphrey," showing his popularity. The cardinal in a few weeks followed him, at the age of eighty, grieving that he must quit life in the midst of his successful intrigues.

Maine and Anjou being surrendered, the French soon got possession of all Normandy and Guienne; and in 1451, all that remained of the English conquests and possessions was the port of Calais. The popular indignation fell chiefly on Suffolk, who had arranged the match with Margaret, and delivered up Anjou and Maine, the keys of Normandy. He was committed to the tower, and articles of impeachment were brought against him. These failing, the king banished him from the kingdom, and, landing at Calais, he was executed by the crew of a king's ship, probably by the instruction of his powerful enemies at court.

Immediately afterwards, a body of twenty thousand men gathered in Kent, under the command of an adventurer named John Cade. They demanded of the court the banishment of certain obnoxious nobles; the punishment of those who had caused the death of Gloucester, Warwick, and Exeter, with the loss of the French provinces; and the abolition and punishment of extortion.

The royal forces sent against them were defeated; the insurgents

marched to London, and executed the royal chamberlain, Lord Say, and the sheriff of Kent. The citizens at last took up arms, defended the bridge, and the insurgents gradually dispersed. Their leader, being pursued by the sheriff, was slain, after an obstinate resistance.

The disputes between Somerset and the duke of York had for some time embroiled the kingdom; and the latter had more than once raised forces to overawe the government. He was arrested, but dismissed without injury by the feeble monarch.

In 1453 the English, who had sent forces into France to rēgain Gascony, were defeated under Talbot, the earl of Shrewsbury, and lost their last footing in Guienne. This increased the odium of the court and queen; and the king soon fell into a state of such imbecility, that he could no longer even play the part of royalty. Somerset was committed to the tower, and York was appointed by the peers Protector during the king's incapacity. The king partially recovering, Somerset rēgained his liberty and influence, and York lost the protectorate. He retired to his estates, where, being joined by the duke of Norfolk, and the earls of Salisbury and Warwick, he raised three thousand men. They marched toward London, and, though professing loyalty, demanded the delivery to them of Somerset and others. This being refused, a skirmish with the royal forces ensued, in which Somerset and others of distinction were slain, and the king, wounded, fell into the hands of the insurgents.

Parliament was summoned, and he was compelled to justify the rebels, whose chief, the duke of York, was again declared Protector. But in 1456, the king so far recovered his reason, that the queen and her party were enabled to dismiss the duke, and hold the government in their own hands.

For two years the mutual jealousy of the factions continued; and the nation was gradually divided into the parties of York and Lancaster. In 1458, indeed, by the mediation of the primate and others, an agreement and a public reconciliation were effected. It was, however, only superficial, and their concealed hatred was kindled into a flame by a trifling occurrence. Warwick's servants and the queen's having engaged in a quarrel, the latter attacked the earl himself, who with difficulty escaped from their hands. He retired in anger to his castle, and thence to Calais, of which he was governor.

Both parties now prepared for open hostilities, and the duke of York advanced a claim to the crown. This he founded on his descent from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, and third son of Edward III.,

alleging his title superior to that of the king, who was descended from John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, the fourth. But by act of parliament, and the almost unanimous consent of the realm, the house of Lancaster had occupied the throne for three generations; and the dynasty under which the duke claimed, had itself, by force or policy, taken the place of former lineal successors to the throne, so that his claim was no more valid than that of the descendants of the ancient Saxon line, or of the Britons before them. The weakness of the king, and the power of his own faction, however, gave the duke a fair prospect of success. His main supporters were the earls of Salisbury, Warwick, and Norfolk; but the greater part of the nobles remained faithful to the king. As the red rose was the cognizance of the house of Lancaster, and the white that of York, their partisans assumed these for their respective badges; and the contest which ensued was, in consequence, called the "War of the Roses."

Both sides made preparation for the ensuing struggle; but no event of importance took place until the autumn of 1459, when Salisbury defeated the royal forces under Lord Audley, in Staffordshire, with a loss of two thousand men. An army of sixty thousand, however, was soon levied by the king; and York, overawed, fled into Ireland, while his confederates betook themselves to Calais. They were all shortly after attainted by act of parliament.

Undismayed, however, Warwick, the following June, landed with a small force of fifteen hundred men, which, by the time he reached London, was increased to twenty-five thousand. He thence marched to Northampton, and engaged the royal army, which by the treachery of one of the leaders, was defeated; several nobles of eminence were slain; and the king himself was taken prisoner. The queen and Prince Edward escaped into Scotland. The duke of York hastened to return from Ireland, and put in his claim to the crown. After the question had been debated before the peers, they proposed, as a compromise, that Henry should retain the crown during his life, and that afterwards it should pass to the duke or his heirs. To this, both parties solemnly agreed.

The queen, however, who was in the North, determined not to surrender the rights of her son; and, supported by Northumberland, Clifford, and other lords, recommenced the war. York immediately marched against them; but was defeated with much loss at Wakefield Green, and taken prisoner. His captors, after seating him on an ant-hill, and crowning him in derision with twisted grass, struck

off his head, and presented it on a pole to the queen, who was delighted with the sight. Salisbury and twelve others shared his fate. His son, a youth of seventeen, was stabbed by the ruthless Clifford.

Edward, earl of March, his eldest son, had at this time a body of twenty-three thousand men, with which he defeated the earls of Pembroke and Ormond, beheading the captives, in revenge for the execution of his friends at Wakefield. The earl of Warwick and the duke of Norfolk, taking the king with them, were defeated at St. Albans by the queen, who thus regained possession of her husband. Further executions followed.

Edward, however, uniting his forces with those of Warwick, soon gained such advantages, that she was compelled to return to the North; and he entered London, where he was very popular, in triumph. The people were shortly after harangued by his orators, who, in a large assembly, asked what king they would have, and, with great enthusiasm, decided in favour of Edward. The next day, March 4th, 1461, in a great council, it was decided that Henry, by joining the queen's party, had violated the award, and forfeited the throne. Edward was immediately proclaimed king.

During the latter reigns, the power of the House of Commons had been continually increasing; and in the last the elective franchise was limited to freeholders, of the annual income of forty shillings.

CHAPTER XI.

EDWARD IV., EDWARD V., AND RICHARD III.

THE Lancastrian faction, with sixty thousand men, still maintained a hostile position at York. The king and Warwick left London to engage them; and, with a force of forty-nine thousand, reached Pontefract. After various skirmishes, a general engagement came on, in the midst of a heavy snow driving against the Lancastrians. They fought with obstinacy till evening, when, in retreating, they were routed; and as Edward had issued orders to give no quarter, nearly half their number perished. The next day,

he entered York, took down the heads of his father and friends, and replaced them with those of his enemies.

On the 29th of June, he was crowned at London with great magnificence, and created his brothers, George and Richard, dukes of Clarence and Gloucester. Parliament declared the Henries usurpers; and an attainder was passed against the late royal family and a great number of their chief adherents.

Margaret, with some assistance from France and Scotland, made one more attempt, and was at first tolerably successful; but the approach of Edward and Warwick, with a large force, overawed her partisans, and she returned to France.

In 1464, Henry, who had retreated into Scotland, was induced once again to take the field, but was defeated, and his chief remaining adherents were executed. He remained concealed for more than a year, but was discovered by treachery, carried to London in an ignominious manner, and lodged in the tower. Fresh attainders ruined the Lancastrians and rewarded the victors.

The king now publicly acknowledged as his queen the lady Elizabeth Grey, whom he had privately married the year before. All her relations were ennobled, enriched, or elevated to high offices; and the promotion of this new family strongly excited the jealousy of the Nevilles and other powerful supporters of the king.

In 1469, Clarence married the daughter of Warwick, in spite of the king's opposition; and the result was a union of these powerful nobles against the crown. A great insurrection immediately broke out in Yorkshire, and was finally headed by the nephew and cousin of Warwick. The insurgents, sixty thousand strong, demanded the removal of the Woodvilles (the queen's relations) and the abolition of oppressive taxes. Lord Hubert, who went against them, was defeated with a loss of five thousand men, and Lord Rivers (the queen's father) and his son John being taken, were executed.

Clarence and Warwick, arriving from Calais, took the king into custody; but (the Lancastrians rising) released him, and a general amnesty was granted; concessions were made to the hostile nobles, and an apparent reconciliation was effected. Warwick and his son-in-law, however, soon excited a new rebellion, which being suppressed, and the leaders executed, they fled to Calais, and thence to the court of Louis XI., king of France. Margaret, King Henry's wife, was residing there with her son, and by the mediation of Louis, an alliance was formed among the exiles, and cemented by the marriage

of Prince Edward to Warwick's second daughter, Anne. It was agreed to restore King Henry to the throne, and, in case that Edward should die without issue, Clarence and his heirs should inherit.

On the 13th of September, 1470, they landed at Plymouth, where Warwick proclaimed King Henry, and summoned all to join his standard. Edward, out-manœuvred, and deserted by his troops, fled to Holland. The allies hastened to London; and on the 13th of October, Henry, wearing the crown, walked in procession to St. Paul's. A parliament being summoned, reversed the acts of the preceding reign, and restored the houses of Lancaster and Neville to their former honours and possessions. Only one execution followed this complete revolution.

In 1471, assisted by Burgundy, Edward returned, and landed at Ravenspur on the 14th of March. He solemnly avowed, however, that he had no further design than to recover the estates of York, and his followers shouted "Long live King Henry!" Finding himself at the head of a respectable force, he threw off the mask, and was joined by Clarence, already discontented with the new arrangement. Pushing on to London, he seized Henry, and taking him with the army, advanced to meet Warwick. On the 14th of April, they encountered at Barnet, and after a contest of six hours, the Lancastrians were defeated. Warwick, fighting valiantly, fell with his brother, leaving behind him the popular name of "the King-maker," from the changes he had wrought in the government.

The queen and Prince Edward, who had also arrived, were outnumbered, defeated, and captured by Edward, at Tewksbury; and the gallant prince was brutally murdered in the tent of his rival by the hands of Clarence, Gloucester, and others. Three thousand of the Lancastrians were slain, and their leaders were executed after a promise of pardon. Edward reëntered London; and that same night Henry died in his prison, probably murdered by the king's command.

Freed from domestic enemies, Edward resolved to attempt the conquest of France; but the aid of parliament, always liberal on these occasions, was not sufficient, and the king, under pretext of soliciting charity, extorted large sums, called *benevolences*, from the wealthy citizens. In 1475, he passed over to Calais with sixteen thousand troops; but, on account of the disinclination of his allies and nobles, the war was not carried on; a treaty was concluded, by which Margaret was to be returned to France, the dauphin to marry

his eldest daughter, and certain sums were to be paid by Louis. The two kings held an interview on a bridge, with a strong grating between them, to prevent any treacherous attack.

Richard of Gloucester, the king's second brother, was anxious to marry Anne, the widow of Prince Edward, and thus get possession of the immense estates of Warwick; and in spite of Clarence, who, wishing to keep them all in his own family, concealed her, he discovered her, disguised as a cook-maid, and espoused her. Clarence, offended at this and other matters, withdrew from court; and some of his discontented expressions having reached the king in an exaggerated form, he was declared guilty of treason, and privately executed in the tower—according to the common report, by drowning in a butt of Malmsey wine (1478).

Edward, while meditating a fresh war with France, died on the 6th of April, 1483, in the forty-second year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. This king, though cruel, treacherous, and sensual, was exceedingly popular with his subjects, on account of his valour, his beauty, and his agreeable manners.

His son, Edward V., was only in his thirteenth year, and was then in the charge of the queen and his uncle, Earl Rivers. On his way to London, however, his uncle Gloucester, who had professed the greatest loyalty, intercepted him, seized his person, and arrested his half-brother, Earl Grey, and Rivers, who were with him. He was then taken to London, homage was rendered him, and he was lodged in the tower. Gloucester was named protector, and hastened to fill the great offices with his adherents. His projects were now obvious. Hastings, Stanley, and others, remaining firmly attached to the young king, Richard trumped up an accusation of sorcery against them, and publicly showing his arm, which was naturally withered, pretended that this had occurred through the witchcraft of the queen, Jane Shore, and Hastings. He ordered the immediate execution of the latter, swearing by St. Paul that he would not dine until he saw his head. Others of the young king's friends were imprisoned. On the same day, Rivers, Grey, and others were beheaded at Pontefract.

Richard next seized the young duke of York (the king's brother), who was in sanctuary with his mother at Westminster, and conveyed him to his brother at the tower. These innocent children were overjoyed at meeting, little imagining the cruel object of their uncle.

The protector now stood forth hypocritically as a rigid censor of

morals, and compelled Jane Shore, the late king's mistress, to do penance in a white sheet. He followed up this step by questioning the legitimacy of Edward's children, alleging, through his creatures, that the king's marriage had been an illegal one; and his priest, after preaching in front of St. Paul's on the text "Bastard slips shall not strike deep roots," and dwelling on the application to Edward's heirs, and even insinuating the illegitimacy of Edward himself, pointed out the lord protector, who had just entered, and declared him the image of his father, the duke of York. The people remained utterly silent, and this device having failed, the duke of Buckingham harangued them at Guildhall, and maintained that Richard was the rightful heir to the crown. A few paid voices cried out "King Richard!" and the next day Buckingham, with the lord mayor and several others, repaired to the protector, and besought him to accept the throne. After a hypocritical pretence of reluctance, he assented, and next day publicly assumed the crown.

Shortly afterwards, while making a progress through the kingdom, he sent orders to Sir Richard Brackenbury, lieutenant of the tower, to put the two princes to death. This the latter refused, but Sir James Tyrrel, with two others, named Dighton and Forest, being put in possession of the tower for one night, executed the murderous command by smothering the sleeping children in their bed-clothes. All were amply rewarded by the king.

Meanwhile, the duke of Buckingham, heretofore Richard's staunchest supporter, had formed an extensive conspiracy to dethrone him, and place the rightful heir upon the throne. This was somewhat disconcerted by information of his death; but it was then concluded to offer the crown to Henry, earl of Richmond, the head of the Lancastrian party, on condition of his espousing Elizabeth, daughter of the late King Edward IV.

On the 18th of October, 1483, Richmond was proclaimed by different nobles throughout the country; and Richard issued a counter-proclamation, calling his enemies "traitors, adulterers," &c., and accusing them of "the letting of virtue, and the damnable maintenance of vice." By various misadventures, however, the insurgents were scattered and disheartened. Buckingham was taken, and beheaded with others of the conspirators.

Richard now summoned a parliament, which obsequiously recognised his title, and settled the succession on his son, the prince of Wales. The heads of the late insurrection were also attainted. He

next determined to marry his son Edward to the Princess Elizabeth, who was looked upon by the Yorkists as the true heiress to the crown. This scheme was rendered void, however, by the death of the prince; and, his queen falling ill, Richard offered his own hand to the princess, assuring her that the queen would die in February. Her death occurred on the 16th of March. The dowager of Edward was anxious that her daughter should marry the murderer of her brother and her sons, and the princess shared in her impatience for the match; but Richard was finally deterred from marrying his niece by the opposition of his adherents, who represented to him the horror of the nation at such an unnatural and incestuous union.

The king was now haunted, it is said, by fearful dreams, caused by the remembrance of his crimes. He was, moreover, out of money, and had alienated the citizens by his exactions. Henry took advantage of the popular feeling to land with his adherents. With six thousand men, he engaged Richard with double the number at Bosworth, near Leicester. The king made a desperate charge against his rival, hoping to end the war by killing him; but after a furious encounter, was slain, and with him three thousand of his men. The crown, which had fallen from his head in the battle, was placed on that of Henry, who was immediately and universally acknowledged as king.

Richard was only thirty-two when he thus ended his bloody and ambitious career. He was small in person, and slightly deformed in one shoulder, but not a hump-back, according to the popular report. His bravery and ability were undoubted; and his crimes have secured him an unenviable remembrance with mankind.

With him ended the dynasty of the Plantagenets, after having ruled England nearly three hundred and fifty years; and at the same time terminated the War of the Roses, which, with some intermissions, had lasted thirty years, and had cost the lives of a vast number of the nobility.

During the period of the Plantagenets, nearly all the important features of the British constitution were established; parliament taking advantage of calls for money, and other circumstances, to correct grievances, and limit the royal prerogative. Their efforts were especially directed against feudal rights of an oppressive nature; the severe forest laws; the improper jurisdiction of the king's high officers; and the outrageous system of *Purveyance*, or the seizure of goods, provisions, &c., for the use of the king's household, and those

of other powerful lords. The abuses of taxation, and the protection and pardon of criminals through the influence of their patrons, the nobles, were also in some degree abrogated.

Crime, when not permitted to escape with impunity, was usually punished in the most severe and barbarous manner. When a prisoner refused to plead, he was subjected to the *peine forte et dure*, ("strong and hard pain,") which consisted in laying him naked in a dungeon, and piling great weights of iron upon him till he answered or died. Traitors were often disembowelled alive, and other cruelties were in common use.

The English church still followed that of Rome in the most subservient manner. Transubstantiation, purgatory, prayer to saints, and especially to the virgin, and the efficacy of pardons and indulgencies, were fully received by all except the persecuted Lollards. The morals of the clergy were generally depraved, and they held more than a fifth of all the lands in the kingdom.

The common people and most of the nobles were exceedingly ignorant, and what little of learning and science existed, was mostly in the hands of a few of the clergy. The Bible had been translated by Wickliffe, but its dissemination among the people was watchfully prevented.

CHAPTER XII.

HENRY VII.

THE successful adventurer, proceeding to London, was welcomed by the authorities, and renewed his promise to espouse the Princess Elizabeth. The coronation was delayed by a pestilence, called the "Sweating Sickness," which carried off numbers of the people. On the 30th of October, 1485, the king was crowned, and, for the greater security of his person, enrolled a force of Yeomen, a corps which still forms the body-guard of the English sovereigns. Parliament soon meeting, settled the crown explicitly on Henry and his heirs. Except by right of conquest, and the popular wish, his title was excessively weak, resting solely on his descent from an illegiti-

THE DEATH OF RICHARD III., A. D. 1485,

AT THE BATTLE OF BOSWORTH.

"THE intrepid tyrant, sensible of his desperate situation, cast his eye around the field, and descrying his rival at no great distance, he drove against him with fury, in hopes that either Henry's death or his own would decide the victory between them. He killed with his own hands Sir William Brandon, standard-bearer to the earl; he dismounted Sir John Cheyney; he was now within reach of Richmond himself, who declined not the combat, when Sir William Stanley, breaking in with his troops, surrounded Richard, who, fighting bravely to the last moment, was overwhelmed by numbers."—HUME'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

mate child of John of Gaunt. He secured, however, the consent of the Yorkists, by espousing Elizabeth, the representative of that faction.

Before long, the favour which he naturally showed toward the Lancastrians, displeased their former opponents; and an extraordinary impostor, named Lambert Symnell, was instructed by a designing priest to personate the young earl of Warwick, cousin to the queen. Landing in Ireland, where the cause of York was popular, he was almost universally acknowledged and proclaimed by the nobility and people. Henry, to disconcert this movement, published a full pardon to his late opponents, and publicly exhibited the real Warwick, to refute the imposture.

Assisted by the earl of Lincoln and the duchess of Burgundy, the pretender was crowned at Meath, and on the 4th of June, 1487, landed in England. With eight thousand men, the insurgents engaged the royal forces, but were completely defeated, with the loss of their most distinguished leaders and half their number. Simons the priest and his pupil, the pretended king, confessed their imposture; the former died in prison, and the latter was made a turnspit in the royal kitchen. The defeated conspirators were, for the most part, punished with heavy fines or forfeitures, the king being rather of a rapacious than a revengeful nature.

A truce for seven years was made with Scotland. In the year 1488, the people in the North resisted the collection of a tax, and slew the earl of Northumberland, who attempted to enforce it; but were routed by Surrey, who was despatched against them. In 1492, the king, under pretence of making war with France, which had gained possession of Brittany, induced the parliament to grant him a heavy subsidy, and with twenty-six thousand men landed at Calais, and commenced hostilities. These, however, were a mere pretext; for negotiations were meanwhile carried on, and a treaty of peace was concluded on the payment of a large sum to the king, who thus filled his coffers at the expense of both nations.

Nearly at this time, a young man of about twenty arrived at Cork in Ireland from Portugal, and a rumour soon spread that he was the duke of York, and had escaped the tragedy of the tower. The credulous people at once acknowledged him, and he was invited to France, and treated by King Charles as the true heir to the English crown. At the peace, he was compelled to take refuge with the duchess of Burgundy, who strenuously supported his pretensions.

Both the king and the Yorkists anxiously sent over to inquire

into the facts; and they ascertained that his real name was Perkin Warbeck, the son of a Flemish Jew, and that he had been originally sent to Ireland by the duchess herself, to personate the character of the murdered prince. In 1494, the king, discovering the names of those noblemen who had supported the pretender, took the opportunity to execute several of them. Sir William Stanley, the lord chamberlain, who had saved the king's life at Bosworth, was also beheaded on an almost totally unfounded charge of treason; the desire to obtain his large possessions being, it was supposed, the chief motive of his avaricious and ungrateful master.

In 1496, Warbeck landed with a few adherents, who were easily dispersed and taken. An hundred and fifty of them were hanged. Retreating to Scotland, he was received honourably by King James, who, in 1497, invaded England with an army in his behalf. The people, however, refused to regard the proclamation of Warbeck. The raising of taxes to meet the expenses of resistance occasioned a rebellion, which was, however, suppressed by the king's generals, and great numbers of the insurgents were slain.

After another Scottish invasion, followed by a truce, the pretender raised his standard at Cornwall, and assembled six thousand men. Being deserted by their leader, they surrendered, and were mostly pardoned. Warbeck, who had taken sanctuary, was carried to London, and on examination, confessed his impostures. After six months, attempting to escape, he was set in the stocks, compelled to read his confession in public, and then committed to the tower (1498). Here he formed an intimacy with the unfortunate young earl of Warwick, who was kept close prisoner simply on account of his royal descent, and who, from long confinement, was exceedingly simple and ignorant. The latter consented to a plan for escape, which being detected, Perkin was executed. Warwick was then arraigned before the peers on a charge of sharing in the seditious plans of Warbeck, and was beheaded on the 28th of November.

Thus perished the last of the Plantagenets; and there is little reason to doubt that the cold-blooded and remorseless monarch contrived the whole plot as a means of getting rid of one whose rank might make him a formidable rival. The immediate motive probably was to bring about a marriage between his son Arthur and the infanta Catharine of Spain; whose father, Ferdinand, had declared his distrust of Henry's children inheriting securely "as long as the earl of Warwick lived."

Hostilities with Scotland, which, with brief intermissions, had continued so many years, were, in 1503, ended for the present by a marriage between the king of that country and the Princess Margaret. Their descendants afterwards sat upon the united throne of both kingdoms. The marriage of Arthur with the infanta was celebrated in his fifteenth year, but his speedy death disappointing the king's hopes, it was arranged that Henry, his second son, should marry her, and a dispensation for that purpose was obtained from the Pope.

As he grew older, the king's avarice increased, and by means of Empson and Dudley, his able and unscrupulous lawyers, he gained large sums in a most oppressive manner. The earl of Oxford, one of his most active supporters, was fined ten thousand pounds for having summoned his retainers to do honour to the king, thus infringing a certain statute. Henry had for some time been troubled with the gout; and was finally carried off by an attack of that complaint on the 22d of April, 1509, in the fifty-third year of his age and the twenty-fourth of his reign.

He was a man of great political talents, and rather of a cold-blooded than of a cruel disposition. He was not vindictive toward his enemies, though he would shed blood without remorse to gratify his ambition or avarice. He left the world laden with the curses of his people, whom he had oppressed and despoiled.

Some important statutes were passed during his reign, enabling lands to be more easily alienated, and forbidding the punishment of treason to be applied to those who served a king actually on the throne. The oppressive court, afterwards called the Star Chamber, was also constituted.

During this reign, the New World was discovered by Columbus, and Henry, desirous to share in these tempting acquisitions, sent out Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, who, in 1497, discovered the coast of North America, from Labrador to Florida.

CHAPTER XIII.

HENRY VIII.

THE young king, at the age of eighteen, ascended the throne with every advantage. Universally acknowledged as the rightful heir, and inheriting large treasures accumulated by the avarice of his predecessor, his reign commenced most auspiciously. He married Catharine, retained his father's ministers, and for two years amused the court and people by scenes of martial splendour and gallantry. The execution of Empson and Dudley, which he ordered in compliance with the importunities of the people, was the only event of public importance until 1512, when England began to take a part in the affairs of the Continent.

By an alliance with Ferdinand of Spain, a fleet and army were despatched to recover Guienne for England and Navarre for Spain. The latter object was accomplished, but the design of Henry failed, owing to the mutinous disposition of the troops. Various naval engagements with the French fleet followed, but resulted in nothing of importance. In 1513, the king, with twenty-five thousand men, sailed for France, having first ordered the execution of the earl of Suffolk, who lay in the tower, and who, being accused of conspiracy, had surrendered himself to the late king, on an assurance that his life should be spared. Assisted by the Emperor Maximilian, the English took Tournay and Terouenne, and made prisoners the Chevalier Bayard and other persons of eminence. Henry then returned to the island, where the Scots were assuming a hostile attitude.

James, his brother-in-law, having been dishonourably used by Henry in some matters of no great importance, was prevailed on by the French court to take up arms. He despatched a fleet to the aid of Louis, and with a numerous army marched into the north of England, taking many strongholds. The earl of Surrey, with twenty-five thousand men, proceeded against him, and the two armies encountered on Flodden, one of the Cheviot hills. The battle, which only lasted for an hour, was fought most fiercely, and resulted in the utter discomfiture of the Scots, with a loss of ten

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thousand men. King James and his most valiant nobles died fighting hand to hand in the front of the battle.

The hostilities with France were ended by the defection of Henry's allies, and a peace was agreed on, ratified by the marriage of Louis to Mary, the king's sister, sixteen years of age. Louis, who was more than thrice her age, died on the 1st of June, 1515, and she became a widow after three months of marriage. The celebrated Francis I. succeeded to the throne.

The most powerful and influential subject in the kingdom was Cardinal Wolsey, who, for fifteen years, controlled the king, and through him the nation, in an almost absolute manner. He was the son of a butcher, and had been the chaplain of Henry VII., by whom he was made a dean. On the accession of the young king, he became the royal almoner, and by his gayety and companionship in the royal amusements, as well as by his talents for business, completely won his affection and confidence. He became, in rapid succession, bishop, archbishop, cardinal, chancellor, and papal legate. He also aspired, not without reason, to the pontificate itself.

His revenue, arising from his many offices and preferments, was enormous; he lived in the most princely magnificence, and bestowed a liberal and enlightened patronage on literature and men of learning. Both in the administration and improvement of justice, he showed himself eminently upright and capable.

On the death of the Emperor Maximilian, in 1519, the kings of France and Spain contended for the vacant dignity; and Charles having received the vote of the electors, Francis, desirous of gaining the powerful support of the English monarch, sought a personal interview with him. They met near Calais, on the English territory, and, in the midst of tournaments and splendid displays, entered into a treaty of mutual alliance. Such was the wealth and magnificence displayed by the two courts on this occasion, that the place of their meeting was styled "The Field of the Cloth of Gold." Their attendants, vying with each other in display, incurred ruinous debts and expenses. The two kings lived upon the most intimate terms, even acting to each other as valets at the toilet.

This memorable meeting, however, did not advance the interests of Francis; for Charles of Spain, his rival, was nephew to Queen Katharine, and had gained the influence of Wolsey by important gifts and an assurance of support in his designs on the papacy.

In the following year, 1521, the duke of Buckingham, one of the

first nobles in the kingdom, was arrested and executed upon a very doubtful charge of treason. The king's jealousy and Wolsey's ambition were probably the cause of this vindictive act.

The war between Charles and Francis had been renewed; but both parties accepted the mediation of England. Wolsey, to whom the affair was intrusted, effected (probably by previous arrangement with Henry) an alliance between the emperor, the Pope, and the king of England; and it was agreed to invade France simultaneously. The earl of Surrey, with sixteen thousand troops, passed over in 1522, but effected nothing of importance. Albany, the Scottish regent, at the instigation of Francis, assembled a large army for the invasion of England; but after some hostilities, left the kingdom. The earl of Angus took the regency, under Henry's protection, and peace prevailed between the nations for eighteen years.

By the intrigues of the emperor, Wolsey had now been twice disappointed of his election to the papacy; and he concluded a fresh treaty of alliance with France. By this time, the various kingdoms of Europe, after passing through many transitions, had assumed something of their present limits and forms of government. Great events were in their commencement. The wonderful revolution in the church had begun on the Continent. The press, for more than half a century, had been gradually disseminating light and knowledge, and its first important effects were seen in the great contest which took place between the new and the ancient theology.

The building of St. Peter's had, in a great measure, drained the papal treasury; and to repair the loss in some degree, the practice of selling indulgences was carried on by the agents of the church, in a very extensive manner. In Germany, the principal itinerant was Tetzel, a Dominican friar, who, with his assistants, disposed of great numbers, promising the purchasers that "the gates of hell should be closed, and those of Paradise open to them." At last he came in the neighbourhood of Wittemburg, where Dr. Martin Luther, the professor of theology, an Augustinian monk, had been for several years engaged in extricating himself from the trammels of the Romish superstitions.

His penitents exhibited Tetzel's indulgences, desiring absolution, which he refused, denouncing their authority. Tetzel, who was an inquisitor, then proclaimed him a heretic. Luther in return began to preach openly against the indulgences; and his celebrated warfare with the papal church commenced. In England, where Wickliffe's

opinions were still secretly cherished by many, his books were widely circulated. The church, by great severity and persecution, endeavoured to check the new doctrines; and Henry himself, with some assistance, produced in 1521 a respectable "Defence of the Seven Sacraments." The Pope, in gratitude, bestowed on him the title of "Defender of the Faith," a title which the British sovereigns arrogate to themselves to this day. Luther, who had been greatly vituperated in this performance, answered by another, applying terms equally coarse to Henry, whom he styled, among other choice epithets, "a hog of hell." The royal partisans responded with others, in which the lowest depths of scurrility and obscenity were reached.

This situation of religious affairs was, however, entirely changed by the personal feelings and interests of the king. The queen had borne him five children, of whom only one, the Princess Mary, survived. Her melancholy and peevishness alienated his affections, and he was anxiously desirous of a male heir. A sudden and very opportune scruple of conscience came to his aid. Katharine had been married to his brother, who died when a youth, and though a dispensation had been obtained from the Pope, he professed a conscientious doubt of its authority. Wolsey encouraged the new idea, and a divorce was resolved on. A French connection was planned; but the king had become smitten with the charms of Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's attendants—beautiful, witty, and amiable. She refused to surrender her virtue to the king, but consented to accept his hand, in the event of a divorce being obtained.

The bishops all signed an instrument questioning the validity of the king's marriage, and he made application to the Pope for a divorce. After much delay, a commission was issued to Wolsey and Cardinal Campeggio, to try the case in England. The queen's resolute and noble demeanour before this tribunal affected every one; she finally refused to attend the court, and Henry expected a decision in accordance with his wishes. But the Pope, influenced by the Emperor Charles V. (the queen's nephew), contrived, under various frivolous pretexts, to protract the matter for more than two years. Henry was wearied out, and Wolsey, to whom he attributed these delays, lost his favour altogether.

In this strait, the king happened to hear (very likely by previous arrangement) that Dr. Thomas Cranmer, a theological lecturer at Cambridge, had expressed an opinion that the matter should be decided

by the universities and learned canonists. He eagerly swore "this man hath the sow by the right ear," and remarked upon the money and quiet which he had lost from not knowing the device sooner. Cranmer was instantly sent for, and the case put into his hands.

The fall of Wolsey, who had been unable or unwilling to effect his master's purpose, ensued. The great seal was taken from him, and he was compelled to yield his immense personal property to the king. Parliament was summoned; and on a long list of very vague charges, he was outlawed. Having thus humbled his former favourite, the king pardoned him, and allowed him to retain a portion of his property. Soon after, in November, 1530, while travelling, he was taken very ill, and came to the convent at Leicester, where the abbot received him with great respect. "Father Abbot," said the fallen man, "I am come to leave my bones among you." He soon died, saying, in his last moments, "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, he would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

The Pope still proving impracticable, application was made to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and, with great difficulty, Henry obtained an opinion that the marriage was illegal. Many agents were also employed to obtain the decisions of foreign universities, and, in spite of the opposition of the Pope and emperor, these were generally favourable to the king. They were then transmitted to Rome, with a hint that the matter might yet be decided in England; but his Holiness, urged by Henry on one side, and Charles on the other, would not compromise himself by a decision.

Cromwell, a talented and ambitious man, who had been in the service of Wolsey, and afterwards of the king, now advised Henry to take a bold step, and assume to himself the supremacy over the church and clergy of England. The king assented. Under pretext that the clergy had incurred outlawry by obeying Wolsey, they were compelled to present the king with a large sum of money, (one hundred thousand pounds,) and to acknowledge him their supreme head "as far as the laws of Christ would allow." This blow was followed in 1532 by an act of parliament, reducing the revenues of Rome, and providing for the consecration of bishops by the king, in case of refusal by the Pope. Meanwhile, persecution continued to rage, and several unfortunate persons were burned for having denied "the real presence" of the body of Christ in the consecrated wafer.

Henry now lost all patience, and banished Katharine, who still

maintained her pretensions, from Windsor. He then appointed Cranmer archbishop of Canterbury, and in 1533 privately married Anne Boleyn. She soon appeared in public as queen, and Cranmer and others, after trying the case over again, pronounced the king's first marriage null and void. Anne was shortly after crowned by the primate, and gave birth to the Princess Elizabeth, who was declared heiress to the throne.

The parliament of 1534 completely fulfilled the wishes of Henry, checking the power of Rome, settling the succession on the children of Anne, and making it high treason to do any act in derogation of the marriage or succession. The bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More, the late chancellor, declining to swear to the nullity of the former marriage, were committed to the tower.

The king's supremacy was now generally acknowledged, and though the clergy were deeply dissatisfied, any resistance was overawed by the fate of eleven monks, some of them priors, who were executed at Tyburn for denying it. Fourteen Dutch Anabaptists, who had taken refuge in England, also suffered at the stake. The execution of the bishop of Rochester and Sir Thomas More, both men of the highest character, soon followed; both died with great magnanimity, and the latter uttered several modest pleasantries on the scaffold. These judicial murders raised a general outcry; and the tyrant's name was execrated throughout the Catholic world.

He next resolved on the suppression of the convents, and the sequestration of their revenues; a measure arbitrary and despotical, indeed, but productive of some good effects in releasing many victims, who, by the avarice or superstition of their parents, had been immured in these secluded and unnatural abodes. The property confiscated at this time was very considerable.

In 1536, Katharine died, and Anne, who had thought this event favourable to her security, soon discovered her mistake. Henry had become fascinated by the charms of Jane Seymour, one of her attendants, and being disappointed in his hopes of a son, sought an opportunity to get rid of his queen. Some slight tokens of levity being reported to him, he ordered her arrest, and preferred against her a charge of adultery. Four gentlemen, one of them her brother, were arrested as the participants of her crime. She wrote a most dignified and eloquent epistle to the king, avowing her innocence; the charges were excessively improbable, and the proof amounted to almost nothing: yet the accused parties were all con-

victed of treason, and suffered accordingly, no one daring to dispute the tyrant's will. The queen was beheaded, evincing great courage and magnanimity to the last. Being informed that the pain would be trifling, she replied, "I have but a little neck," and put her hand about it, smiling.

The day after this atrocious murder, Henry married the object of his passion, as if willing to exhibit his motives without shame or compunction. The people of Lincolnshire, discontented at the suppression of the monasteries, assembled in arms, to the number of twenty thousand; but finally dispersed upon proclamation. A more formidable insurrection broke out in the North, where the malcontents marched through the country in great force, performing a sort of martial pilgrimage, and took the cities of York and Hull. Forty thousand in number, they advanced to Doncaster; but a heavy rain and an act of amnesty dispersed them.

In 1537, they again took up arms; eight thousand, headed by two gentlemen of Cumberland, attempted to seize Carlisle, but were defeated with great slaughter, and several of their leaders, with seventy others, were hanged on the walls. Other similar undertakings were also suppressed, and a number of nobles, gentry, and clergy, implicated in them, were executed. An amnesty was afterwards issued.

On the 12th of October, the queen gave birth to a son (Prince Edward), and died soon afterwards, thus probably escaping the fate which might, at no distant day, have been her's, by the king's caprice. An English translation of the Bible was this year introduced into the kingdom, by the royal sanction. The remaining monasteries were next suppressed, with little opposition, the loss of the monks being partially compensated; and a revenue of an hundred and thirty thousand pounds was thus added to the royal treasury. A vast number of pretended relics and juggling impostures were at the same time exposed to the popular examination; and St. Thomas of Canterbury (Becket) was condemned as a traitor, and his bones were taken up and burned. Most of the lands sequestered were divided among the favourite nobles and gentry; whose rapacity and greediness, with the shameless prodigality of the king, absorbed the spoils of the clergy so far, that in 1540, the next year, he was obliged to require a large subsidy from parliament to meet the expenses of this most lucrative reformation.

In spite of the errors and superstitions which clung around these

strongholds of the ancient religion, every one must lament the destruction of the noble edifices and the valuable libraries which fell into the hands of the unprincipled favourites. History and literature in general sustained irreparable losses. The most unbounded indignation was excited at Rome, and a terrible bull was issued, laying the kingdom under an interdict, excommunicating Henry, declaring his later offspring illegitimate, and ordering the nobility to take up arms against the king. But the time had passed when a government could be overthrown by such means. Men's minds, if not more enlightened, had become more independent, and the only effect of this fulmination from the Vatican, was to exasperate the king to further violence.

Reginald de la Pole, a second cousin of the king, had been one of the most active of the papal agents; and had endeavoured, in vain, to excite the neighbouring nations to avenge, by a warlike crusade, the injuries suffered by the church. Unable to get this formidable foe into his power, the king seized his brother, Lord Montague, and several other persons of distinction, who were executed on a charge of abetting his designs.

Henry, though setting the church of Rome at defiance, suppported its most absurd doctrines by persecution. He argued with one Lambert in support of the "real presence;" and being unable to convince the unhappy man, burned him at Smithfield, in company with two Anabaptists. It was the good or evil fortune of the king to find the most slavish and subservient of parliaments always at his command. An act attainting Pole's relations, and other distinguished persons without trial, was passed; and another, creating an absolute despotism, followed, giving to the king's proclamation all the authority of a statute of parliament.

After a vehement debate upon matters of religion, each party prepared a bill of faith; and that of the ancient belief, in six articles, called "the bloody statute," received the king's approbation. By this, the doctrines of transubstantiation, celibacy of the clergy, confession, and other matters, were made authoritative; to oppose the first was punishable by death, and to violate the others was made felony. Numbers of the reforming clergy were immediately cast into prison. Cranmer, supported by the king's personal friendship, was untouched; but found it necessary to send his wife and children to Germany. Henry had all this time been busily engaged in treaties for a fresh marriage; and being somewhat corpulent in person,

was anxious that his wife should be of correspondingly large dimensions. Among other propositions, one was rejected which he made to Francis I., that they should meet at Calais, and the Frenchman should bring the finest ladies of his court. He next saw a picture of Anne, daughter of the duke of Cleves, made proposals, and was readily accepted. On beholding the bride, however, he was grievously disappointed, and swore that "they had brought him a great Flanders mare." Unwilling to offend the continental prince, however, he married her, but determined to repudiate her as soon as possible, and to ruin Cromwell, the high chamberlain, who had brought about the match.

At a dinner he beheld Catharine Howard, niece of the duke of Norfolk, and was immediately captivated by her charms. Cromwell was forthwith attainted by the parliament, according to his own device, upon a frivolous charge of treason and heresy. The parliament and clergy, subservient as usual, pronounced the king's marriage void, on the ground that Anne had been previously affianced to another; and it was made high treason to question this decision. The execution of Cromwell followed immediately, and fresh victims were soon offered to the shrines of bigotry—three for denying the supremacy, and three for preaching "justification by faith." In April, 1541, an insurrection had broken out in the north, but it was suppressed, and the leaders were executed. The revengeful monarch seized this occasion to execute the countess of Salisbury, Pole's mother, a lady of seventy-two, who had for some time been imprisoned.

A few days after the death of Cromwell, the new queen had been publicly introduced at court, and, according to the lords of the council, had completely won the king's heart by "a notable appearance of honour, cleanness, and maidenly behaviour." The king, the following season, gave public thanks to Heaven, for the happiness of his married life; and on the next day received a written statement of the queen's incontinence, both before and after marriage. Henry at first could not believe it, but upon receiving undeniable proof, burst into tears. The parliament met, and bills of attainder were passed against the queen and other persons implicated. She was beheaded on the 13th of February, 1542. On the 12th of July, in the following year, he married Catharine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer, a lady secretly inclined to the reformed doctrines.

The year before, some acts of hostility with Scotland had occurred,

and the king of France having opposed the English interests, Henry was induced by the emperor to unite in a league against him. In July, 1544, he crossed the sea with his principal nobility and an army of thirty thousand men. At an early period, however, his ally made peace with the enemy, and the king returned to England, having taken and garrisoned the town of Boulogne. The war with France and Scotland was still feebly protracted until it was terminated by a peace in 1546.

Cranmer had succeeded in obtaining a mitigation of the provisions for the enforcement of the six articles, and in 1543, his enemies made a strong attempt to crush him, representing to the king that the primate and his adherents were filling the realm with heresy, and praying for his committal to the tower. Henry consented that he should be at the disposal of the council, but privately gave him a ring, assuring him of protection. The archbishop, finding himself severely and unjustly dealt with, produced the token, and, with his accusers, went before the king. The latter declared his confidence in Cranmer, and a hollow reconciliation was effected by his authority.

The parliament of 1545 granted large subsidies to the king, and even empowered him to seize the revenues of the hospitals, universities, and public institutions, on condition that "all shall be done to the glory of God and the common profit of the realm." In the following year, Anne Askew, a lady who had adopted the reformed opinions, was cruelly tortured, and, with three others, was burned for denying the "real presence."

Gardiner, the persecuting bishop of Winchester, even attempted to make a victim of the queen. By Henry's consent, articles of accusation were drawn up against her, and received his approbation; but Catharine, accidentally learning the scheme, so artfully flattered the tyrant's vanity and love of argument, that he became completely reconciled to her. The next day, when the chancellor, with forty men, appeared in the royal garden to arrest her, Henry called him a "knave, fool, and beast," and ordered him away. Gardiner was also disgraced.

The king, afflicted with corpulence and disease, was near his end; but contrived to load his memory with one more weight by the execution of the accomplished earl of Surrey, on a most frivolous and unfounded charge of treason. On the 27th of January, 1547, he died very tranquilly, expressing his reliance on the Saviour, and affording another proof that a comfortable death-bed is not the

unfailing evidence either of a virtuous life, or of correct religious opinions. In despite of his utter selfishness, caprice, and tyranny, he was one of the most personally popular monarchs who ever sat upon the English throne. His physical strength and martial appearance, with a certain bluff good-humour, captivated the hearts of the people. His abilities, though grievously misused, were unquestionable. He excelled in literature, and had the faculty of discerning merit and ability in those whom he employed.

CHAPTER XIV.

EDWARD VI., AND MARY.

THE young king being only in his tenth year, a council, appointed by the will of Henry, assumed the government. Their first act was to create one of their number, the duke of Somerset, protector of the realm, and to bestow fresh titles and estates upon themselves. The duke first exerted his authority to crush the chancellor by a charge of malfeasance in his office, and to gain from his successor a confirmation to himself of full regal power. He appointed a council, though its authority was merely nominal.

The Protestants now looked forward to more favourable times. Both the young king and the primate were in favour of their principles, and the council was under the reformed influence. Various superstitious usages were suppressed by law, and the New Testament was generally introduced. Gardiner, who resisted these innovations, was committed to prison.

Early in the autumn, Somerset, with twenty thousand men, invaded Scotland; the principal object being to compel a union (proposed by Henry) between Edward and Mary, the youthful occupants of the respective thrones. Arran, the regent, assembling an army of double the English force, opposed him; and after vainly negotiating concerning the disputed matter, battle was joined at Pinkey, on the coast. The Scots, exposed to the English archery, and to a fire from the fleet which accompanied the army, were

defeated with a loss of ten thousand men; but no advantage resulted to the English from their victory. The protector was recalled to London by domestic intrigues, and the young queen was sent to France, and betrothed to the dauphin.

The parliament of 1548 repealed the odious statute making the royal proclamation the law of the land. The severe laws and arbitrary definitions of treason were abolished, and the statutes against Lollardy and for the enforcement of the "Six Articles" were discontinued. These improvements, however, do not indicate an advanced liberality in matters of opinion, but only that some of the more influential classes had begun to lean to the new doctrines. Heresy, it was still held, should be punishable by law, and the odious statute "*de hæretico comburendo*," for burning of heretics, was still retained.

During the year, a new liturgy, the basis of that now used by the church of England, was compiled by Cranmer and others, and was ordered to be used in all the churches. An act, permitting marriage to the clergy, was also passed. The protector's brother, Lord Seymour, the high-admiral, an ambitious man, had married Henry's widow; and on her death, paid much attention to the young Princess Elizabeth. He, moreover, engaged the affections of the young king, by supplying him with money; other suspicious manœuvres were observed; and the government, in alarm, had him condemned by attainder, without any opportunity for defence. He was executed three days after, Somerset and Cranmer signing the warrant with the others.

Persecutions, under the reformed system, still continued. Cranmer and others, by commission, tried a woman named Joan Boucher, and condemned her to the flames for maintaining that Christ was not incarnate of the virgin. The youthful king evinced the greatest reluctance to signing the horrible warrant; and all the authority of Cranmer was necessary to induce him. The next year, a man named Parr, suffered the same fate for being an Arian.

The first effect of the suppression of the monasteries was, except to the receivers of the spoil, unsatisfactory. The people, oppressed by their new and absent landlords, thought with regret of the leniency and personal kindness of their old masters the friars. They were further distressed by the high prices caused by the influx of the precious metals from the New World; wages not having risen correspondingly. Viewing all these evils as originating with the Reformed doctrines, they rose in several of the counties, where they

were at first quieted by the efforts of the resident gentry; but by degrees the insurrections became more formidable. In Devon, the insurgents, numbering ten thousand men, demanded the restoration in full of the ancient forms which had been suppressed; that many disused customs should be enforced, and that heretics should be strictly punished. While laying siege to Exeter, they were routed and dispersed by Lord Russell; several of their leaders were executed; and the vicar of St. Thomas was hanged in his robes from his own steeple. In Norfolk, one Kett, a tanner, with twenty thousand peasants under his command, sat beneath an oak, called the Oak of Reformation, summoned the gentry to appear before him, and made what decrees he pleased. After routing the marquis of Northampton, who had been sent against them, the rebels were defeated by Warwick, with a loss of two thousand of their number. Kett was hanged at Norwich, and nine others were suspended from the boughs of their favourite tree.

The protector had now become exceedingly unpopular; and he added to the public hatred by pulling down certain churches and bishops' houses in the city, to build himself a palace in their room. His principal enemy was Dudley, earl of Warwick, a son of the beheaded agent of Henry VII. In 1549, this nobleman, with eight others of the council, assumed the entire power, and appealed to all classes for assistance. Somerset, being generally deserted, was compelled to yield to the storm, and was committed to the tower. He was accused of being the author of all the misfortunes which had happened to the realm, and confessed his guilt. Certain penalties were adjudged, but his opponents, not wishing to ruin him entirely, liberated and pardoned him. A marriage of his daughter to Warwick's eldest son united the rivals, and he was allowed a seat in the council. The successful faction, as usual, rewarded themselves with titles and estates.

On the 24th of March, 1550, a peace was made with France and Scotland; Boulogne being restored to the former on payment of four hundred thousand crowns.

The Reformation was still pushed on. Bishop Bonner, a staunch supporter of Rome, was deprived of his see, and imprisoned. Gardiner, who had been two years in the tower, was also degraded from his office. The Princess Mary, who still heard mass, was menaced in her turn; but declared herself ready to die in support of her faith, and assured the council that she never would read any of

their books, as she thanked God she never had. Through fear of the emperor, her cousin, who threatened war, she was no further molested. The Book of Common Prayer was next revised; and forty-two articles of religion were drawn up.

Warwick pursued his career of ambition, and on the death of the earl of Northumberland, got possession of his title and a great part of his estates. Somerset, whom he still dreaded, was again arrested on the charge of having conspired his death, and that of other leading persons. He was tried before the peers, acquitted of treason, but found guilty, on tolerable evidence, of felony. He was executed on the 22d of January, 1552, amid the lamentations of the people, with whom he had formerly been popular, and his care for whose interests, on various occasions, formed the redeeming portion of his character. Several of his friends were executed, and others were fined and imprisoned. Bishop Tunstall, an ardent Romanist, was also deprived of his see.

The king's health, always delicate, had become more precarious of late, and Northumberland dreaded the succession of Mary, a zealous adherent of Romanism. She and Elizabeth had been made illegitimate by act of parliament during the late reign; the next in order, overlooking the heirs excluded by the king's will, was the duchess of Suffolk, who was desirous to transfer her claim to her daughter, the Lady Jane Grey, a confirmed Protestant. Northumberland represented these matters to the young king, himself a strong Protestant, and pointed out the dangers which the reformed faith must encounter, if Mary succeeded him according to the will of her father. Edward readily entered into his views, and ordered the chief judges to draw up an instrument bequeathing the crown accordingly. With much reluctance, they complied, and the new devise, after great debate, was signed by all the judges and privy counsellors except one. The earl had no small stake in the artful and ambitious game which he was playing; for at this time, the Lady Jane Grey was married to his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley; and the throne, as he supposed, was thus secured in his own family.

The king survived this transaction only a short time. He died on the 6th of July, 1553, praying for the promotion of true religion, and that papistry might be averted from the realm. During his brief and youthful reign, he exhibited many amiable and estimable qualities, though his character was somewhat tinged with intolerance.

Northumberland had designed to get possession of Mary's person;

but was disappointed by her precipitate flight. The Lady Jane, whom her ambitious relatives were attempting to place in this high and perilous position, was only sixteen years of age, but was endowed with high talents, virtuous feelings, and an amiable disposition. She was also unusually learned and accomplished. When (four days after the king's death) the news was communicated to her, and the principal persons of the council requested her to assume the crown, she fell senseless to the ground, and on recovering, wept bitterly. She was told that she was the rightful heir, and accepted the crown—without question most reluctantly—and from a sense of duty.

The partisans of Northumberland, and the reformed clergy in general, exerted themselves strongly to secure the throne to its new occupant; but the disinterested subjects listened with apathy to the proclamation, and to the sermons preached in favour of the change. In Norfolk, the people, hating Northumberland for his severities, espoused the cause of Mary, and proclaimed her as queen. Several of the nobility joined her, and four thousand men, under Sir Edward Hastings, deserted the cause of Northumberland, and came to her assistance. A fleet sent to intercept her, if she should attempt an escape, took a similar course. Northumberland, with ten thousand men, advanced against her, but finding himself vastly outnumbered, retreated to Cambridge.

Meanwhile, in London, the civil authorities and several of the high officers of government, perceiving how matters were tending, proclaimed Mary, amid the acclamations of the populace. The Lady Jane, after a reign of ten days, made a formal resignation of her brief authority, declaring how much pleasanter it was than the acceptance. Northumberland was speedily arrested and committed to the tower; and the accession of Mary to the throne was universally acknowledged. Entering London in triumph, she released Bonner and Tunstall, and made Gardiner high-chancellor. Northumberland and a number of his associates were convicted of high treason, but the only executions at this time were those of himself and two others. Jane and her husband were kept in confinement, and the other prisoners were set at liberty.

The queen had averred that she would not interfere with the religion of the people; but the hope of toleration soon proved vain and futile. Bishops Ridley and Hooper were committed to prison, and the Princess Elizabeth found it necessary for her safety to attend

mass The primate, Cranmer, on the first indication of his disapproval, was committed to the tower on a charge of treason. Latimer, on a similar charge, was already there. Most of the leading Protestants were soon in prison; the people of Suffolk, reminding the queen of her promises, met with insult, and one of their messengers, named Dobbe, was set in the pillory. Pole was at once appointed by the Pope as papal legate to England; and the queen despatched a private letter to the pontiff, promising to bring the kingdom again into obedience to the See of Rome.

The parliament, which speedily met, was composed of a large majority of Romanists; a Latin mass, in open defiance of the existing law, was performed, and Bishop Taylor, refusing to kneel, was forcibly put out of the house. Acts, fortifying the queen's legitimacy, and annulling all statutes of the late reign concerning religion, were passed. Jane, her husband, his brother, and Cranmer, were attainted of treason, and all pleaded guilty, as the best way of appeasing the hatred of their prosecutors. The commons also prayed her majesty to select a husband from among the nobility of the realm, hoping to prevent her contemplated marriage with Philip of Spain, the emperor's son; but she told them it was for her, not them, to choose in this matter. Her resolution being fixed, Gardiner, the chancellor, in settling the articles of marriage with the imperial commissioners, took every precaution for the honour and security of his country; and Philip, as the queen's husband, was to be allowed only the shadow of authority. The match was, nevertheless, exceedingly odious to the people in general; and conspiracies were soon renewed against the government. The most serious was in Kent, where Sir Thomas Wyatt, a man of great ability and courage, headed a revolt, and increased his forces to fifteen thousand men.

London, however, proved loyal, and the insurgent leader, attempting, with a greatly diminished force, to surprise it, was defeated and taken prisoner. The next day the queen issued a warrant for the execution of her youthful and innocent prisoner, the Lady Jane, and for that of her husband. He was beheaded on tower-hill, in the presence of a vast multitude; and Jane, after witnessing the return of his lifeless body, was led forth to execution, within the tower. She died with great courage and tranquillity, admitting that she had committed an unlawful act, but declaring her innocence of having desired the crown. Thus perished, at the mandate of an alarmed and jealous woman, one of the most admirable and amiable persons

to be met in English history. Her father and uncle, who had been engaged in a conspiracy, were shortly after executed. One of the accused being acquitted, the jury were fined large sums, and the conviction of others was thus insured. Wyatt was beheaded, and a large number of his followers (by some accounts four hundred and fifty) were hanged.

Elizabeth, who was naturally an object of jealous suspicion to her Catholic sister, was committed to the tower, being landed at Traitors' Stairs, where she exhibited some resolution, and a good deal of feminine petulance and weakness. Mary, urged by the emperor, would willingly have executed her; but not daring openly to violate the law, kept her close prisoner in various fortresses. Great numbers of the gentry, foreseeing the impending persecutions, sold their property, and went over into France.

In spite of all endeavours of the royal party, and an immense sum sent over by the emperor for purposes of bribery, parliament refused to sanction any measure giving Spain a foothold in the kingdom. They would not even make it treason to conspire against the life of the queen's husband; and refused to revive the statute of the six articles, and other strong Romanist laws concerning heresy. The marriage took place, (July 25th, 1554,) but all the pomp and pageantry displayed on the occasion, could not reconcile the people to an alliance which reminded them of Spanish tyranny and of the Inquisition.

The queen's most cherished project was to bring the kingdom again under obedience to the Pope; and for this purpose, a pliable House of Commons was required. Orders were issued to the sheriffs accordingly, and so fully did they carry out her instructions, that not a single Protestant, it would appear, was elected to the new house. On meeting, the chancellor, in presence of the royal pair, announced to the house their intention of rëuniting the realm to the Catholic church. The old attainder of Cardinal Pole was reversed, and he was received with the highest distinction as papal legate. A unanimous petition from the lords and commons prayed for rëadmission into the bosom of the church. In a great meeting the legate absolved the realm, and the ancient faith was restored with stately ceremonies. The various bills rejected by the former parliament were passed. Elizabeth, however, with some other prisoners of distinction, was released by the intervention of Philip, who desired to ingratiate himself with the nation.

The queen, determined to overawe or extirpate the opponents of Rome, had already intimated her intentions to the lords of the council; desiring, however, that none might be burned without a good sermon as an accompaniment, for the benefit of the people. The cardinal, a man of mild and amiable temper, sought, by gentle means, to win back the recusants to his church; and in furtherance of this plan, procured a solemn procession, thanksgiving, and rejoicing, celebrated by the ominous blaze of bonfires throughout the night. This ceremony, called the "Feast of the Reconciliation," was to be annually observed. On the third day after, the chancellor, Bonner, and other high lords, both lay and clerical, opened a court under authority of the legate, for the trial of heretics.

Their first victim was the Rev. John Rogers, who denied the real presence, and was burned at Smithfield, on the 4th of February. He died with great constancy, amid the sympathy and encouragement of an immense crowd of spectators. Four days afterwards, Bishop Hooper suffered the same fate in his own diocese, at Gloucester. More of these horrible executions followed, under the direction of Bonner, to whom the chancellor had relinquished this odious office, and who, from his fanaticism and delight in scenes of cruelty, was the fittest instrument that persecution could have found. "The married clergy," says Mr. Southey, "were observed to suffer with the most alacrity. They were bearing testimony to the validity and sanctity of their marriage; the honour of their wives and children was at stake; the desire of leaving them an unsullied name, and a virtuous example, combined with a sense of religious duty; and the heart derived strength from the very ties which, in other circumstances, would have weakened it." It is worthy of remark that Philip's confessor, a Franciscan, named De Castro, more humane or enlightened than his contemporaries, at this very time preached a sermon more strongly condemning these barbarities, as utterly opposed to Christianity.

A splendid embassy carried the submission of the realm before the Pope, which he was pleased to receive, but also demanded the restitution of the confiscated church property. Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer, after being kept in prison for some time, were carried to Oxford, where for three days they maintained a dispute upon the Eucharist and mass with the dominant party, receiving much abuse from their opponents. The unfortunate Cranmer was cited to appear before the Pope in eighty days, and was then closely impris-

oned. Bishop Ridley, and Latimer, still maintaining their opinions with constancy, were condemned, and suffered at Oxford, on the 16th of October. "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley," said Latimer at the stake, "and play the man. We shall this day, by God's grace, kindle in England such a flame as I trust shall never be put out."

Gardiner, who had heretofore managed the parliament with great ability and address, having died, the queen met with no little difficulty in carrying out her projects. A bill for restoring tithes, first-fruits, &c., to the Pope, was rejected, and she obtained little for the purpose. In other ways the houses exhibited discontent with the sanguinary measures of the government. Philip, also, perceiving his unpopularity, and despairing of offspring by the queen, returned to Flanders, and shortly after inherited, by the resignation of his father, the immense possessions which he had acquired. The queen solaced herself, in his absence, by rēestablishing monasteries, and persecuting heretics, sixty-seven of whom were this year condemned to the flames for opposing transubstantiation.

The eighty days appointed for Cranmer's appearance having expired, the Pope degraded him, and appointed Pole as primate in his place. In February, 1556, Bishops Bonner and Thirlby sat at Oxford, as a commission for his trial. In vain he protested against the palpable evasion of justice which had been put upon him; he was clothed in mock insignia, and publicly scoffed at. After this, by the fear of death, and the temptations of his enemies, the unhappy man was induced to abjure his opinions, and to sign no less than six different recantations. The object of his persecutors was now attained, and, owing to the queen's personal hatred and that of others, it was determined, contrary to the usual custom, to sacrifice him with the rest. Suddenly, and without preparation, he was summoned forth to die, and, in presence of a large congregation, was desired to repeat his recantation. He arose, knelt and prayed, and then addressed the people, exhorting them to loyalty, virtue, and piety. Then, to the confusion of his enemies, he made the most open confession and repentance of his weakness and duplicity in falsely denying his true opinions; and declared that the hand which had signed his recantation should be first burned in the flames. He was hurried to the stake, where he further lamented his yielding to temptation, and held his right hand in the flames until it was consumed. He then died with great fortitude, and thus, in the opinion

of most, redeemed the errors of his life; for he had been a persecutor himself, and had condemned others to the flames for doctrines similar to those which he sealed with his own blood.

In March, 1557, Philip came over to obtain the aid of England in a war with France. He would not probably have succeeded, unless the rival nation had been discovered to have aided an insignificant movement against government; which was defeated, and its contriver, Thomas Stafford, beheaded. The queen, by forced loans, and the seizure of corn, enlisted and provisioned a force of ten thousand men, which she sent, under the earl of Pembroke, to the assistance of Philip, in Holland. The fleet, meanwhile, harassed the coast of France. A severe reverse, however, awaited the English. On the 1st of January, 1558, Calais, the only remnant of the conquests of Edward III. which, for two hundred years, had been in their possession, was taken by the duke of Guise. This loss deeply mortified the people, and so affected the queen, that she declared that after her death, "Calais would be found lying in her heart." An attempt to retrieve this disaster, by seizing upon the port of Brest, failed; but, by assistance of the English, the Count Egmont was enabled to give a complete defeat to the French, who had invaded Flanders.

This gloomy and inauspicious reign now drew to a close. Mary had been for some time labouring under disease, aggravated by the unpopularity which her cruelties had drawn upon her. She beheld with mortification that all her severities had been unable to check the secret spread of heretical opinions; and knew that Elizabeth, her successor, privately held the reformed doctrines, and would probably reestablish them. Being attacked by an epidemic fever, she expired on the 17th of November, 1558, in the forty-third year of her age. The cardinal died of the same disease, on the following day.

This queen, though not devoid of good qualities, has left, by her fanaticism and cruelty, the most unenviable reputation; and the popular epithet of "Bloody Mary" evinces how deeply the horrors of persecution had sunk into the minds of the people.

With the death of Mary and Cardinal Pole, the papal supremacy ended by common consent. Persecution, as usual, had increased the zeal of the reformed believers; and many, surveying the constancy and cheerfulness of the martyrs, and detesting the cruelty of their persecutors, embraced the Protestant faith as soon as they could

do so with safety. During those four years of obstinate attempts at forcible conversion, nearly three hundred victims had perished in the flames, including bishops, clergy, women, and children.

CHAPTER XV.

ELIZABETH.

THE new queen was immediately proclaimed amid the general rejoicings of the people. By the counsel of Sir William Cecil, her chief adviser, she declared her intention of retaining most of the counsellors in office. An announcement of her accession was sent to foreign princes, and Philip immediately offered her his hand; which, however, was civilly declined. The Pope, on receiving the intelligence, passionately declared that she was illegitimate, and could not inherit the crown; but said that if she would renounce her claim, and submit entirely to the Holy See, she should be leni ently treated. This ridiculous assumption was, of course, entirely disregarded.

Those in prison for opinion's sake were now released, and the queen commenced slowly and cautiously to change the established forms of worship. She was crowned on the 15th of January, 1559, the occasion being celebrated by the most quaint and gorgeous pageantry. Elizabeth was at this time twenty-five years of age, tolerably good-looking, and, considering the age, remarkably learned and accomplished. The new parliament, in which, from obvious reasons, there was a strong Protestant ascendancy, immediately confirmed her title to the crown, and commenced the work of religious reformation. Tenths, first-fruits, and the supremacy, were restored to the crown; and to deny the latter obstinately, was made treason. Eight clerical champions, four from each party, were appointed to hold a disputation upon the mass, the English liturgy, and the power of the church to establish rites and ceremonies. It was curiously argued by the supporters of the Latin service, that "ignorance is the mother of devotion;" a piece of sophistry which was ably refuted

ELIZABETH, QUEEN OF ENGLAND

THE DAUGHTER OF HENRY VIII AND ANNE BOLEYN,

BORN, 1533 —BECAME QUEEN, 1558 —DIED, 1603

She was a woman of masculine energy self-will and talent for government By the sagacity of her counsellors and her own prudence her reign was eminently tranquil and successful. The lustre which is attached to her name has however, been deeply obscured by her vanity, jealousy, and revengeful spirit

by the Protestant debaters. On the second meeting, the Romanists refusing to argue, because their opponents were to have the last word, they were, after the arbitrary fashion of the time, fined heavily for a contempt, and some of them were committed to the tower. The "Act of Uniformity" was then passed, enjoining a stated service, under grievous penalties, throughout the kingdom, and imposing a fine of a shilling on all who absented themselves from church. Of the fifteen bishops, one only consented to take the oath of supremacy, and the others, though suffered at first to remain at liberty, were afterwards imprisoned or kept under surveillance for opposing the new regulations. Their places were filled with Protestants. The great body of the clergy, however, accepted the changes without hesitation, and the reformation was thus finally and effectually established.

Peace with France and Scotland was made upon reasonable terms, although Elizabeth viewed with great jealousy the young queen of Scotland and her husband the dauphin, who had assumed the royal arms of England, to which Mary, according to the papal edicts, was next heir. The Romanists of England, it was feared, considering Elizabeth illegitimate, would look upon Mary as the lawful claimant of the throne; it was well known that France secretly cherished the scheme of placing her upon it; and these considerations led the queen to seek a secret alliance with the Protestant faction of Scotland.

Persecution had there produced its usual effect in exciting the zeal and adding to the number of the innovators. The queen-regent, who held, according to her own statement, that the promises of princes should not be performed, "unless it suits their convenience," had by her treachery and severity driven the people into open rebellion. Excited by the famous John Knox, a rude and daring reformer, they pillaged monasteries, expelled their inmates, and destroyed the papistical instruments and ornaments of the churches. The "Congregation of the Lord," an association headed by influential nobles, gained great advantages, and compelled her to come to terms; which, however, she violated at once on receiving forces from France.

The king of that country dying in 1559, his son, Francis II., and Mary, openly assumed the titles of king and queen of France, Scotland, and England. Further aid was prepared for Scotland, and the Congregation, seeing themselves overpowered, applied for aid to Elizabeth. A fleet and army were despatched to their assistance; but hostilities were, for a time, averted by the negotiation of a

treaty, in which it was proposed (the queen-regent having died) that the French should evacuate the kingdom, and that it should be governed by twelve persons, appointed by the queen and parliament, and that the claim to the throne of England should be renounced.

The young king of France, however, died soon afterwards, and Mary, his widow, finding her situation unpleasant, and urged by her Scottish subjects, concluded to return to her own kingdom. Application was made to Elizabeth for an unmolested passage to Scotland, which was peremptorily refused, unless the Scottish queen would ratify the treaty. This she refused to do, and there is little doubt that her rival, though pretending friendship, privately sent a fleet to intercept her passage. In 1561, Mary, weeping, quitted the land of her adoption. She watched the shores as long as they were in sight, exclaiming, tearfully, "Farewell, France! I shall never see thee more." The rough appearance and want of polish of her new subjects, did not tend to reconcile her to the change; and with her French suite, she was especially annoyed at a loud and discordant serenade which her loving subjects, in their joy at her return, kept up all night beneath the palace windows. She was at this time nineteen, tall, beautiful, talented, and accomplished; and though educated in a sphere so entirely different, reigned for some years happily and prosperously. Murray, her half-brother, a man of great ability, and the head of the Protestant party, aided her with his advice; and she listened with prudent patience to the rough admonitions of Knox.

Nevertheless, instigated by her French advisers, she inwardly resolved to restore the ancient faith to its former supremacy; and had already promised, if she succeeded to the throne of England, to bring that kingdom again under subjection to the Holy See. The Romanists were naturally pleased with this; and those Protestants who, including Elizabeth herself, secretly regarded Mary as her rightful successor, were proportionately alarmed. Elizabeth still insisted on the ratification of the treaty, but refused to acknowledge Mary as her successor.

Both sovereigns being young and personally accomplished, were sought in marriage by a number of ambitious suitors; but Elizabeth, while by negotiation amusing the parliament, which was anxious to see the succession settled on her issue, secretly determined never to subject herself to the power of a husband. Among foreigners, Philip, Charles of Austria, Eric of Sweden, the duke of

Holstein, and other princes sought her hand. At home, Arundel, Pickering, and Leicester, aspired to the elevated rank of consort. The latter was a son of the late Northumberland, and the intimacy and partiality of the queen are supposed to have tempted him to the commission of a horrible crime. His beautiful wife died at an obscure residence called Cumnor Hall, from an accident, it was said; but a strong suspicion of murder was attached to the favourite.

Charles sought also the hand of Mary; Philip offered her his son; the king of Navarre and others of a high rank were desirous of a union with her. Her choice, however, was not free; and the interference of Elizabeth and that of the reformed faction was such, that she could not securely marry without their approbation. Leicester and others were proposed; but Elizabeth, although she had thrust her advice upon her cousin, continued, perhaps from female jealousy, to throw obstacles before every project, even such as she herself had suggested. Darnley, a youth of twenty, a subject of Elizabeth, and descended from the royal line of both kingdoms, at last won the favour of the Scottish queen, and in spite of the opposition of England and many of her own nobility, she married him, and bestowed on him the title of king. Murray, and other lords having taken up arms, she marched against them, riding armed at the head of her troops, and drove them from the kingdom. They took refuge in England, where Elizabeth, while openly denouncing them as traitors, secretly countenanced and assisted them.

Mary soon discovered her husband to be brutal, intemperate, and foolish. He lost her favour, which was bestowed entirely upon David Rizzio, an Italian musician. Though it does not appear that any criminal connection existed, the jealousy of Darnley and other nobles was so great, that they resolved to assassinate the favourite. They further agreed to procure for Darnley the title of "crown-matrimonial," which the queen had hitherto withheld, an amnesty for the exiled lords, and the establishment of the Protestant religion. The unhappy Rizzio, while supping with the queen, was dragged out by the conspirators, and despatched with fifty-six wounds. Mary, finding herself overpowered, fled with her husband, whom she had prevailed on to accompany her. Collecting a force of eight thousand men, she reëntered Edinburgh, and compelled the confederates to take refuge in England. Soon after, she gave birth to a son, destined to sit upon the throne of both kingdoms.

Darnley had never been forgiven for the murder of her favourite;

and Bothwell, a daring, ambitious man, with whom she was fascinated, engrossed all her favour. He received the most distinguished honours, and aspired to greater. Chance favoured his design. The king, who had been ill with the small-pox, was lodged in a lonely house without the walls, where the queen often visited him. With the connivance of some other men of rank, and probably with that of Mary herself, he resolved to destroy him; and in the dead of night, blew up the house with a mine of gunpowder. Every one suspected him; but the queen continued to lavish favours upon him, and thus increased the public conviction of her own guilt. Attended by a great host of armed retainers, he underwent the mockery of a trial, and was acquitted. His great ascendancy over the queen's mind was next exhibited by her approval of a law, protecting the reformed opinions—a measure by which Bothwell hoped to ensure to himself the support of the Protestant party.

Proceeding in his ambitious career, he invited all the nobles assembled in parliament to sup with him at a certain tavern; where, the house being filled with his soldiers, they all signed an instrument recommending his marriage with the queen, and pledging themselves to maintain it. After a faint pretence of reluctance, she married him, and thus lent an additional weapon to those who accused her of the murder of Darnley. No question in history has been more ably or frequently debated, than that of Mary's criminality or innocence; but the most reliable judgments have decided that her implication in the death of her husband is placed almost beyond a doubt. She had vowed to revenge the death of Rizzio, and perhaps persuaded herself that she was only permitting justice to be executed upon his principal assassin.

Bothwell now exercised the complete authority; but his rule was short. Several of the principal nobles entered into an association against him, and in less than a month he was compelled to part from the queen, and to fly the kingdom. Mary herself, being taken and conducted to Edinburgh, was overwhelmed with insult by the populace, and was finally committed to the castle of Lochlevin, situated in the midst of a lake. She was also compelled, under a threat of instant death if she refused, to sign a resignation of the crown in favour of her infant son. Murray was appointed regent, and the prince was crowned on July 29th, 1567, by the title of James VI. These proceedings were ratified by parliament, and Mary was declared accessary to the death of her husband. Elizabeth, dreading this

example of revolt, strongly expressed her disapprobation, and attempted to negotiate in favour of the captive princess.

In 1568, Mary escaped from her confinement, and was joined by some of her attached adherents, with a force of eight thousand men. The regent gave them battle at Langside Hill, and utterly defeated them. The queen was compelled to fly precipitately into England. Having arrived, she addressed a letter to Elizabeth, requesting an interview, and desiring assistance in regaining her crown. Both these requests were refused, and, to the deep disgrace of the English sovereign and council, it was meanly determined to take advantage of her helpless situation, and detain her as a prisoner. A commission was appointed to investigate the charges against her, her unnatural brother, Murray, being the chief prosecutor. No final decision was made, as Mary refused to proceed with her defence, except in presence of the queen and nobility of England. Murray, though not acknowledged as regent, was dismissed with a handsome gratuity. Liberty was offered to the captive, if she would resign her crown, or associate the prince with her, and yield the regency to Murray during the minority. This she refused, alleging that such an act would be a confession of guilt. Her demand to go into France was refused, and she was still detained prisoner.

Meanwhile, a secret treaty, in which the first nobles of England were implicated, had been made for her marriage to the powerful duke of Norfolk, and her reëstablishment upon the Scottish throne. Alliance with England, and an immunity for the reformed religion, were among the stipulated terms. Elizabeth, on hearing the particulars from Leicester, who betrayed his allies, committed the duke and other lords to prison; a step which was soon followed by the celebrated "Rising in the North." The earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, who were deeply implicated in a plot for the deliverance of Mary, raised the standard of revolt, and mustered about seven thousand men. Though professing loyalty to the queen, they proclaimed an intention to restore the ancient religion, and to release the lords from prison. Finding, after some unimportant movements, that they were not supported by the Catholics in general, their forces dispersed, and the leaders fled into Scotland. Northumberland was afterwards taken and executed, and Westmoreland died in exile on the Continent. Dacres, who, with three thousand men, revolted in 1570, was defeated, after a severe contest, and took refuge in Flanders.

The English queen and council now began to reap the fruits of their injustice in detaining Mary, and would have delivered her to Murray, but for his assassination shortly after these events. There seems little doubt that at this time there existed an extensive confederation between the Pope, the king of Spain, and others, aided by the Catholic nobility in England, to restore the ancient religion, and probably to dethrone Elizabeth, and place Mary in her stead. The captive queen was informed of the projects, and, almost as a matter of course, approved them; and these circumstances filled the minds of Elizabeth and her ministers with that constant jealousy and alarm, which finally resulted in the disgraceful execution of their prisoner. One Felton, about this time, was executed as a traitor for posting a bull of the Pope (excommunicating the queen, and denying her title). A further proposal was now made to Mary, to release and restore her to her throne, on conditions which would have made Scotland a mere dependancy on the neighbouring kingdom. The agreement, however, was not concluded.

The reign of Elizabeth, for the first ten years, had been eminently successful and prosperous. She was aided by the advice of the ablest counsellors, of whom Cecil, Lord Burleigh, was the most distinguished. The Catholics had almost universally conformed to the changes in worship instituted by government, and the queen was generally popular. From the imprisonment of Mary, dates a new period; a period of domestic plots, foreign hostility, and that embarrassment which usually accompanies a persistance in injustice. Those who believed in Mary's guilt, pitied her unjust and unlawful confinement; and those who were devoted to her person and religion, often resorted to the most desperate expedients.

Religion, as in the two preceding reigns, was the principal element in politics; and the state was divided into three parties, each professing a different belief. These were—the Churchmen, who held their faith as established by government—the Catholics, who remained faithful to the ancient Romish belief—and the Puritans, who, emulating the continental zeal, would have pushed the Reformation farther, and abolished nearly all the prescribed forms and ceremonies. A great historian has considered the reformation of the English Church as the most moderate and sensible of the various religious changes which occurred in Europe. "The fabric of the secular hierarchy was maintained entire; the ancient liturgy was preserved, so far as was thought consistent with the new principles;

many ceremonies, become venerable from age and preceding use, were retained; the splendour of the Romish worship, though removed, had at least given place to order and decency; the distinctive habits of the clergy, according to their different ranks, were continued; no innovation was admitted merely from opposition to former usage."

The tranquillizing effect of these moderate and prudent measures was disturbed by the zeal of the Puritans, who insisted on further changes and further severities toward the adherents of Rome. The discontent was greatly aggravated by Rome herself, who lost no opportunity, by open bulls and private emissaries, to arouse the Catholic subjects. The faction opposed to the latter was numerous and powerful, numbering in its ranks some of the first men in the state. The church party, though nominally in possession of power, was the weakest of the three; and Elizabeth, though holding the supremacy as one of her most cherished attributes, was yet secretly inclined to transubstantiation, image-worship, and celibacy of the clergy. This last, however, may have arisen from a certain feminine jealousy, which led her to discountenance and break off, if possible, the marriages of all over whom she had any control. She had occasionally assisted the French Huguenots with money and men.

In 1571, after an interval of five years, parliament met; and as the Puritan interest was predominant, further penalties were enacted against the Catholics. It was also made a high offence to name any person as Elizabeth's successor, except her *natural issue*. The following year, Norfolk, who had been released, was again arrested for having conspired to release and marry the Scottish queen, and to abrogate the laws against Catholicism. He was found guilty by a commission of the lords, and finally executed. On the 23d of August, 1572, on the Eve of St. Bartholomew, a terrible massacre of the Protestants took place in France. At least thirty thousand perished; and the Catholics on the Continent were filled with unbounded exultation. England, however, was moved with strong indignation, and the French ambassador, on his presentation, was received by the court in deep mourning, and with profound silence. The queen nevertheless continued a negotiation for marriage with the French king's brother, and soon after stood godmother to his child.

The court of London, alarmed at the aspect of foreign affairs, and dreading domestic plots, now began to entertain thoughts of executing

their prisoner, the Queen of Scots, for whose release the Catholic world was so dangerously anxious. Burleigh, Walsingham, and others, thought it advisable; and the bishop of London, writing to the former, suggested as the first step "furthwith to cutte off the Scottish quene's heade." It was first proposed to deliver her to the Scots, on condition that they would execute her; but this scheme took no effect. The continental Protestants now received aid from England, and their cause began to prosper.

A period of some tranquillity ensued. Mary, who had been acquainted with most of the plans for her release, seeing the hopelessness of her condition, became resigned to her fate; and the Catholics, not being actively molested, remained quiet. Scotland, under the vile regent Morton, was entirely governed by English influence. The national genius for naval and commercial enterprise now broke forth in great splendour. Commerce with Russia and the Levant was established. The slave-trade in its worst form was commenced by the celebrated Hawkins. Sir Martin Frobisher explored the northern shores of America as far as Hudson's Bay. The most celebrated navigator of the day was Francis Drake, who, after various adventures in commerce and piracy, took, with a private force, a Spanish town on the isthmus of Panama, and ascending the mountains, beheld the Pacific Ocean. Five years afterwards, in 1577, he set sail, with a very small equipment, for the Pacific, and having lost all his vessels except one, cruised along the western coast of South America, plundering all Spanish vessels which he encountered; then stretching boldly to the west, he weathered the Cape of Good Hope, and reached England, after a voyage of three years, during which he had circumnavigated the globe, and taken plunder to the amount of near four millions of dollars. The queen knighted him, and partook of a banquet in his vessel.

She was now deeply engaged in a project for marrying the duke of Anjou, brother to the French king, and a man very much younger than herself. The plan was generally unpopular; and a zealous Puritan, named Stubbs, wrote a book, entitled, "The Gulf in which England will be swallowed by the French Marriage." Both he and his printer suffered the penalty of losing their right hands. In 1582, while Anjou was at the English court, the queen publicly gave him a ring as a pledge of her acceptance of his suit. The matter was regarded as settled; but Elizabeth, overcome by the arguments and entreaties of her ministers, again dismissed him,

and he withdrew, flinging away the ring, and exclaiming against the fickleness of women, especially islanders.

In 1581, new laws were enacted against the Catholics, and the former ones were more rigidly enforced; attendance on the prescribed services was compelled, under very heavy penalties; and persecution was glutted by the execution of those priests who privately exercised their function. The Jesuits and others were tortured and cruelly put to death as traitors, ten of them being executed on one accusation. In Scotland, the regent Morton, having been lately beheaded for his former implication in the murder of Darnley, the Catholic faction matured a plan for the joint government of Mary and James, which they and other high personages approved; but this scheme fell through, in consequence of the seizure of the young king by the Protestant leaders. The English influence still retained its ascendancy.

Conspiracies were becoming rife again, and the council resorted to every method, even the most dishonourable, to gain information. Letters were written by them to leading Catholics in the name of Mary, and those who replied were arrested. Eminent lords were cited before the council, and the rack was freely used on those of lesser rank, to discover their secrets. There appears, however, to have been little ground for apprehension of a revolt, for the queen was exceedingly popular, and whenever she appeared in public, crowds fell upon their knees, invoking blessings on her head. It was resolved, however, to get some hold upon the life of Mary, and parliament accordingly enacted that if "any invasion or rebellion should be made by or *for* any person pretending to the crown after her majesty's decease, or any conspiracy against her person," a commission of peers should be appointed, with power to give judgment as they might see fit. Further and severer laws, if possible, were also passed against the Catholics. At this time, one Dr. Parry was executed for having designed to assassinate the queen, and, as he averred, by the approval of the Pope himself.

In 1585, the Dutch being almost overpowered by their enemies, were assisted by England with a force of six thousand men, commanded by the earl of Leicester. His first campaign was not very fortunate, and that gallant knight Sir Philip Sidney, the model of a soldier and gentleman, lost his life during the siege of Zutphen. Wounded and dying, he gave the water, which had been brought him, to a wounded soldier, who was eying it wistfully, saying, "Thy

necessity is yet greater than mine." Meanwhile, Drake, who had been despatched to the West Indies, met with great success, took several towns, and returned with much spoil. In 1586, a Protestant alliance was concluded between Elizabeth and James of Scotland.

In the same year, a dangerous conspiracy, comprising an insurrection and the assassination of the queen, was detected by Walsingham. The authors of it were betrayed by one of their associates, and, the minister allowed them to entangle themselves fully, while he perused all their correspondence. Mary was apprised of the plan, and, it was said, consented, though this has never been proved to the satisfaction of impartial judges. When Ballard, Babington, and the other conspirators had fully committed themselves, they were arrested, tried, and condemned as traitors. Seven of them were executed according to the ancient barbarity of disembowelling alive; the others were previously hanged till they were dead.

It was now considered by the court a favourable time to proceed against Mary, and thus rid themselves of one whose imprisonment menaced them with perpetual danger and alarm. Leicester, who had returned, proposed to poison her privately; but the clergyman whom he sent to Walsingham, was unable to persuade him of the propriety of this course. A commission of forty noblemen and others was then appointed under the late act. Mary denied the truth of the charges, as well as the authority of the commission; but being told that she would do injustice to her reputation by refusing an investigation, finally agreed to plead, provided that her protest against the lawfulness of the proceedings should be received. This was assented to, and the protest was recorded. The testimony against her was of a very questionable character, and she affirmed that a letter produced as her's, and proving her implication in the scheme, was a forgery. During several days, in which the trial proceeded, she defended herself with the greatest firmness and ability. Nevertheless, she was found guilty, an event which was almost equally certain before as after the trial.

The sovereigns of France and Scotland interfered openly to save her, but it is said that their messengers secretly advised her execution. Indeed, the whole affair indicates such a spirit of cruelty, treachery, and meanness among royal and noble characters, as plainly shows the depraving influence of power and jealousy. More strenuous exertions would probably have failed. Elizabeth had now in her power the rival, whose claims to the throne, whose personal

accomplishments, and the zeal of whose partisans had so long rendered her suspicious, jealous, and insecure. On the Scottish ambassadors desiring a respite of her life for eight days, "Not for an hour!" she answered, and abruptly left them.

She now most hypocritically pretended an aversion to blood, yet privately sent for the death-warrant, and signed it. Still she felt reluctant to incur the responsibility, and frequently attempted to engage Davison, the secretary, to undertake the private assassination of Mary. Her keepers, however, men of character, and well aware that they would also be made the victims, if they complied, refused bluntly, "to shed blood without law or warrant." At length, finding that private assassins were not as freely at her command as at that of her predecessors, she gave legal orders for the execution of her victim, "swearing with a great oath," says Davison, "that it was a shame to us all that it was not already done," &c.

Mary was executed on the 8th of February, 1787, in the forty-sixth year of her age. Although her last moments were disturbed by the fanatical interference of those who conducted the tragedy, she died with the greatest dignity and cheerfulness, asserting to the last her innocence of any intentions against the life of Elizabeth.

Whatever may have been her former faults or crimes, it is generally conceded that her execution at the instance of Elizabeth was a crime of the basest character, founded on personal jealousy, and on the alarm continually inspired by the attempts of the Catholics. Her end being attained, however, the queen exhibited the vilest hypocrisy, reproaching her counsellors, and putting her court into mourning. Davison was committed to the tower, and ruinously fined, on the pretext that he had executed the warrant; but in reality to punish him for refusing the office of an assassin, and to impose upon the public mind by a display of indignation.

James, on hearing of the execution of his mother, at first pretended great resentment, but speedily allowed himself to be pacified, well knowing that any serious dispute with Elizabeth might, at some future day, cost him the throne of England.

Philip of Spain now preparing for an invasion of the island, Drake was sent against him. This renowned commander destroyed a hundred of his vessels in the port of Cadiz, and gained other signal successes. The English seamen were thus emboldened, and the attempt was deferred for a year. Leicester, who had returned to Holland, met with ill-success, and was recalled. In 1558, Philip

again made immense preparations, and the prince of Parma, his ally, raised a great force, ready for transportation to the shores of England. Vigorous preparations for defence were made by the English government, and all men between sixteen and sixty were required to exercise in arms. A large army was raised, and a fleet of an hundred and eighty-one vessels, manned by seventeen thousand seamen, was provided—chiefly by the zeal of the citizens of London and the nobility. It was commanded by Howard, the lord-high-admiral, and under him, by Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher. The Catholics joined heartily in defence of their country.

On the 29th of May, 1588, "The Invincible Armada," as the Spaniards haughtily styled it, set sail from the Tagus, under command of the duke of Medina Sidonia. It consisted of an hundred and thirty ships, two thousand six hundred and thirty cannon, twenty-nine thousand men, and an hundred and eighty priests for the conversion of the English heretics. On its passage up the channel to Calais, (where it did not arrive till the 27th of July,) it was harassed by the lighter and swifter fleet of the English, and several vessels were taken. Here the duke ascertained that the prince of Parma, beset by enemies, was unable to perform his share of the undertaking. The English also sent eight fire-ships into the midst of the Spanish fleet. They weighed anchor, but were much shattered by a tempest, and finally concluded, rather than encounter the perils of the channel, to sail round Scotland and Ireland. The English pursued them until ammunition failed. Numbers of their ships were wrecked on the coast, and the crews butchered by the inhabitants. This invincible expedition finally arrived at Spain with a loss of thirty large ships and about ten thousand men. The queen, throughout the impending danger, had evinced great spirit, reviewing her troops in person, and encouraging them by her eloquence. Her officers and seamen were generously rewarded.

At this time died the earl of Leicester, who, for thirty years, had been one of the prime favourites of Elizabeth; leaving the degree and nature of their intimacy a matter of much question for after-times. His character presents a curious compound of crimes and vices mixed with ability, generosity, and magnanimity.

In 1589, by way of revenge, Drake and others fitted out a private expedition against Spain, which, after some successes, was compelled to return by the ravages of sickness. Half the troops had perished, and of eleven hundred gentlemen, not one-third returned. Henry

IV. of France, who was at this time engaged in war with the Catholic League, was assisted with money and forces; and the English, commanded by Sir John Norris, the valiant earl of Essex, and others, gained many laurels. A naval warfare against Spain was still continued, and Frobisher and other commanders did much injury to her commerce. Maritime enterprise flourished. The East Indies were reached by the way of the Cape of Good Hope. Spanish towns were captured, and many vessels taken on the coast of South America. In 1595, the gallant Sir Walter Raleigh made an enterprising voyage and tour of discovery in the same region, seeking the famous and fabulous city of El Dorado.

Philip making fresh preparations in 1596, it was resolved to attack him. An hundred and fifty vessels, with fourteen thousand men, commanded by Howard, Essex, Raleigh, and other celebrated commanders, sailed for Cadiz. The Spanish fleet, at anchor there, was defeated; the town was taken, and an hundred and twenty thousand crowns were forcibly levied. The town, with a large number of merchant vessels, was burned, and the entire damage to the king of Spain on this occasion, was estimated at twenty millions of ducats. A fresh expedition of great force, commanded by Essex, and under him by Raleigh and Sir Thomas Howard, set sail in 1597, but owing to a tempest, and to the want of nautical skill in Essex, effected but little. On their return, Essex fell into disgrace from a ludicrous circumstance. In a warm debate, he petulantly turned his back upon the queen, who instantly dealt him a sound box on the ear. He clapped his hand to his sword, swearing that he would not suffer such treatment from Henry VIII. himself, and left the presence abruptly. He was afterwards restored, apparently, to favour. At this time died Lord Burleigh, for forty years the most sagacious and confidential of the queen's advisers.

Ireland, throughout the reign of Elizabeth, had been in a state of almost constant turmoil and warfare. The attempt to force the reformed doctrines upon the people had been met by determined resistance—a resistance which, in various forms, has been actively maintained to the present day. Hugh O'Neal, earl of Tyrone, assisted by Spain, revolted, and defeated the English forces which opposed him. Essex, at his own earnest desire, was sent against him, with eighteen thousand men. Through mismanagement and desertion, he found himself unable to accomplish any thing, and, dreading the influence of his enemies at court, hastened home with-

out orders, and suddenly entered the queen's chamber. Taken by surprise, she received him graciously; but the next day, vexed at his disobedience, committed him to a mild custody. She also refused to renew a monopoly which he had held, alleging that "an unruly beast must be stinted of its provender." Irritated at these disgraces, he began to meditate a conspiracy, and, more imprudently still, publicly abused the queen's person, saying that she was now grown an old woman, and as crooked in body as in mind. Plans were entered into by his partisans to seize the palace, and compel the queen to dismiss his enemies. On the 8th of February, 1601, the earl, who had been ordered to keep his own house, marched through the streets with nearly three hundred knights, gentlemen, and others of his faction; but finding that the people did not join him, surrendered to the queen's troops. Being tried for treason before a jury of peers, he was found guilty, and in a few days beheaded; the queen exhibiting a great conflict between her pride and the real affection which she felt for him. He died in his thirty-fourth year, leaving a reputation for high courage and magnanimity, as well as for rashness and ambition. Others implicated in the the affair shared his fate.

In 1602, the Deputy Mountjoy reduced Tyrone and the other revolted chiefs to submission; and six thousand men, sent to their aid by the king of Spain, were forced to capitulate.

Elizabeth was now nearly seventy, and the good health and spirits which she had always hitherto enjoyed, began to fail. The memory of Essex continually haunted her, and she sat for long intervals silent and in tears. Having recovered from an alarming stupor, for ten days she refused food and medicine. As she was evidently dying, the chief officers of state inquired whom she wished to be her successor. She selected James of Scotland, and soon afterwards expired, on the 24th of March, 1603, after a long and (as the term is commonly used) prosperous reign of forty-five years.

The vigour of mind, the prudence and success of this sovereign, have secured for her the admiration both of her subjects and foreigners. Her talent in perceiving merit was equal to her judgment in employing it; and no sovereign was ever surrounded by more brilliant and able favourites. Her defects were not greater than those of most of her predecessors, though appearing more glaring in a woman. She was excessively fond of dress and display; a trait which, however, increased her popularity. She was passionate,

and when incensed, would swear and strike freely. Her reputation for modesty has been often attacked and defended. She has, however, always been an especial favourite with the English nation.

During her reign, four persons were burned for heresy, and about thirty Catholic priests, and some of those who harboured them, suffered the horrible death of traitors. Owing to the increase of mendicancy, and the suppression of the monasteries, which had formerly relieved it, Poor Laws became necessary, and were, for the first time, enacted. Commerce made great advances, though fettered by gross and oppressive monopolies. Literature attained the highest excellence. Shakspeare, Spenser, and a host of other brilliant names, have made the "Elizabethan age" the brightest in the annals of letters. Newspapers, also, at this time first made their appearance in England.

With Elizabeth ended the reign of the house of Tudor. During their dynasty, though to all appearance almost absolute, a new and most important power had been gradually growing up—that of the commons. They were cautious, especially latterly, of provoking it too far; and sought to counterpoise the opposing influence by the creation of new and useless boroughs, to be filled with their own creatures. The iniquitous court of the Star Chamber (so called from the council sitting in a room adorned with stars) was an arbitrary tribunal, irresponsible except to the sovereign. The High Commission was a kind of Inquisition, composed of prelates and others, having almost despotic power over religious opinions. The exercise of these authorities, opposed by the commons, was destined, at no distant day, to overthrow the government.

CHAPTER XVI.

JAMES I

ALTHOUGH, by the will of Henry VIII. and the accompanying act of parliament, the succession had been otherwise settled, James, who was the hereditary heir, succeeded without the least opposition. This was chiefly due to the efforts of Cecil, the son of Burleigh, who had been in treaty with him for some time before the queen's

death. The king left a barren and impoverished country, to enter the splendid and luxurious possession which he facetiously called "The Land of Promise." The popularity which hailed his first appearance was nearly gone before he reached the capital. His per sonal appearance was ungainly, his demeanour ungracious; and he hanged a pickpocket on the way, without law or trial. A number of Scots were added to the former council, and titles were bestowed with a prodigality that greatly diminished their value.

James was at this time thirty-six years of age, and was, as Sully the French ambassador remarked, "the wisest fool in Christendom." The "British Solomon" (as he loved to be styled) was learned, wrote with facility, and possessed a good degree of shrewdness and sagacity; but was remarkably destitute of enlarged and practical good sense. Hardly had he assumed the crown, when it was menaced by two conspiracies. One, to surprise the king, imprison him, and secure toleration for the Catholics, was planned by certain priests and Romanists; the other, to place Arabella Stuart, a lady of the royal line, upon the throne, was the scheme of Lord Cobham and others. Both were detected, and the parties arrested. The most interesting trial was that of Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been committed on accusation of participating in both. The proof against him was of the most unreliable nature; he defended himself with great ability and force; yet the jury, to please Cecil and the king, whose succession he had opposed, found him guilty. He was committed indefinitely to the tower. Some of the prisoners were executed, but Cobham, who turned state's-evidence, was spared.

The king's attention was next engaged by a fierce movement for further religious reform, opposed as vehemently by the two universities. A conference of the two parties was appointed. The primate, the bishop of London, and many other ecclesiastics of high rank, appeared to defend their ceremonies; but when the case of the petitioners was stated, the king flew into a passion, told them that their purposes agreed with monarchy "as well as God and the devil," and said he would never hearken to them until he was pursy and fat, and needed exercise, which such doings would be sure to give him. With other similar abuse he disposed of the case; and the prelates assured him that he had spoken by the spirit of God, and that there had never been such a king since the time of Christ. Orders for strict conformity were immediately issued, and a grievous though bloodless persecution commenced.

Presently danger sprung up from the opposite quarter—the equally injured Catholic party. In the year 1604, a number of ardent and unscrupulous Romanists conspired to strike a terrible blow at their enemies. Their object was nothing less than the entire destruction of the royal family and both houses of parliament. For a time they endeavoured to mine through the basement of the parliament-house, and afterwards hired a cellar under it, which had been used for storing fuel. After long and arduous exertions, they succeeded in conveying thirty-six barrels of powder to this receptacle, and covered them with large stones and logs of wood. Parliament was to meet on the 5th of November, 1605, and it was arranged that on that day the magazine should be fired, and the Catholics should assemble, and proclaim as queen the Princess Elizabeth. A few days beforehand, a letter was received by Lord Monteagle, warning him, in ambiguous terms, not to attend the opening of parliament, and hinting at some unforeseen and awful calamity. This excited suspicion; diligent search was made; and on the day before the 5th, the mine was discovered, and Guy Fawkes, the principal agent in this horrible scheme, was arrested on the spot. When brought before the council, like a thorough fanatic, he avowed his intention, and gloried in it. The names of his associates were forced from him by the rack, and they were mostly apprehended. A small number, who had openly risen, were forced to surrender. The principal conspirators, eight in number, were executed after the barbarous manner of the times, vindicating and defending their scheme to the last. Though attempts have been made by the more zealous and prejudiced of their opponents to throw the odium of this "Gunpowder-plot" upon the mass of English Catholics, it seems certain that, great as their provocation to revenge might be, it met with their hearty abhorrence.

The king was anxiously desirous to bring about a legal union of the two kingdoms; but succeeded only to a comparatively small extent. For a number of years he carried on a continued contest with the commons, struggling to gain subsidies without conditions; and they, on the other hand, endeavouring to obtain the reform of purveyance, and other ancient abuses. Salisbury, (Cecil, the son of Burleigh) his chief adviser, died in 1612. In the same year died Prince Henry, the heir-apparent, a youth of the highest promise, and greatly beloved by the people. The circumstances of his death, and the subsequent conduct of James (who regarded him with jeal-

ousy) have given rise to suspicions of an unnatural crime; but there is little foundation for such a supposition.

The king's prime favourite for a long time had been the earl of Somerset, a man of high personal accomplishments, but destitute of principle and integrity. He flourished for many years in the royal favour, but was finally supplanted by George Villiers, a younger and more pleasing rival. Somerset's implication in the horrible murder of Sir Thomas Overbury, in the tower, furnished a sufficient pretext for his disgrace; and the new favourite soon enjoyed almost unlimited power, controlling the king and all around him.

Through his influence, Sir Walter Raleigh, after an imprisonment of thirteen years, was released, and permitted to command an exploring expedition to Guiana. Various misfortunes and the hostility of the Spaniards compelled him to return unsuccessful; and Gondomar, the Spanish ambassador, whose near kinsman had been slain in one of the encounters, sought his revenge. To the eternal disgrace of James, who was anxious to marry his son to the Spanish infanta, he consented to the sacrifice of this great man, and, reviving the ancient sentence, gave orders for his execution. He died with the greatest courage and cheerfulness, leaving a splendid reputation as a soldier, a statesman, and an author.

Sir Edward Coke, the chief justice, who had boldly defended the laws against the encroachment of the royal prerogative, was dismissed from his office. Sir Francis Bacon, a man of the highest abilities, but of a mean and time-serving disposition, was appointed to the office of chancellor. In 1621, a parliament being summoned, proceeded to inquire strictly into the existing abuses. The most celebrated culprit impeached by them was Bacon, now Viscount St. Albans, who was arraigned for bribery and corruption in his office. He was found guilty, made a full confession, and was sentenced to pay a fine of forty thousand pounds, and to be imprisoned during the king's pleasure. These penalties were remitted by the king, and five years afterwards this celebrated man died in solitude and disgrace—a memorable instance of high talents and splendid opportunities, debased by the want of principle and honesty. His philosophical works have always been held among the most valuable and original in the English language.

The session terminated in a fierce quarrel with the king, who resented the advice of the parliament on state affairs, dissolved them, and committed some of the most prominent members to prison. In

hopes to conciliate Spain, the Catholic penalties were, by his authority, greatly relaxed; and negotiations for the marriage of Prince Charles to the infanta were diligently carried on. Villiers, who was now marquis of Buckingham, had gained a complete ascendancy over the mind of the prince, as well as that of his father. He persuaded Charles to set off with him for Spain, in person, and, by browbeating the king, gained his consent. These young knights errant, under the names of Jack and Tom Smith, passed rapidly through France, and were received with great distinction at Madrid. Articles of marriage were agreed upon, and a day for the espousal was fixed; but the whole matter was finally broken off by the caprice of Buckingham, who had taken some offence, and whose influence with the king was irresistible.

By his intrigues and misrepresentations, the commons were induced to believe that the fault lay with Spain; the people, ever hostile to that nation, exhibited the greatest delight at the prospect of a war: and parliament voted three hundred thousand pounds for carrying on the contest. In 1624, the prince was contracted to Henrietta, sister of the French king; but James was not destined to witness the completion of his favourite project. He died on the 27th of March, in the following year, after a reign of twenty-two years. The mixture of learning and folly which characterized this monarch, has left his memory associated with somewhat of the ludicrous; while the grossness of his personal habits, and the mean selfishness which marked his political career, have oppressed his name with deserved odium.

During his reign, the experiment of colonizing Ireland with English inhabitants was attempted on a large scale; and though many circumstances retarded its progress, the general effect has been favourable to the civilization of that country.

Religious jealousy and bigotry continued in full force throughout his reign; the chief contest being between the Churchmen and Puritans. To the latter, though gloomy and censorious, the liberties of England are highly indebted. They always stood foremost in parliament to defend the laws and the rights of the subject against the usurpations of the royal prerogative; yet, with a strange inconsistency, would have altogether denied to the Catholics that liberty of conscience which they so manfully upheld for themselves. Their good deeds have, however, survived them, while the evil that alloyed them has, in a great measure, disappeared.

CHAPTER XVII.

CHARLES I.

CHARLES, who became king at the age of twenty-five, was of a grave and haughty character. His morals and manners contrasted most favourably with those of his predecessor; but he was a bigoted believer in the absolute authority of kings, and Buckingham, the odious favourite, still maintained his entire prëeminence. The king married Henrietta, and soon afterwards met his first parliament. Opposition to the court was excessively strong—the Puritans and the defenders of civil liberty greatly outnumbering their opponents. Subsidies were scantily and reluctantly voted, accompanied by requests for the redress of grievances. An impeachment of Buckingham was in agitation, when the king, to save his favourite, dissolved the assembly. He, however, by arbitrary measures, raised money for the war with Spain, and despatched Lord Wimbledon, with a large fleet, to attempt the conquest and plunder of Cadiz. This expedition failing, through the incapacity of the commander, Charles found himself obliged to summon another parliament. This body at once proceeded to agitate grievances, deferred voting subsidies, and impeached the duke of Buckingham, charging him with venality, embezzlement, and other misdemeanours. He made a plausible defence, but before determination of the case, Charles again dissolved the parliament, declaring that he would give an account of his actions to God only, "whose immediate vicegerent" he claimed to be.

He then commenced a course of arbitrary despotism; levying taxes without authority, and severely punishing those who refused compliance. Several persons of note having been thus committed to prison by the council without any cause assigned, the judges, on a writ of *habeas corpus*, decided that the king's authority was superior to the law, thus totally abrogating the liberty of the subject.

Buckingham, to gratify a private quarrel, now involved the nation in a war with France; and with a hundred sail, set out in person for Rochelle, a strong Huguenot city. He showed much per-

CHARLES I KING OF ENGLAND.

AFTER THE ORIGINAL PORTRAIT BY VANDYCK, NOW PRESERVED IN THE MUSEUM OF THE LOUVRE

sonal gallantry, but, owing to his want of generalship, was forced to retreat, with a loss of two thousand men. In this strait, parliament in 1628 was again summoned, and, as a conciliatory movement, the political prisoners, seventy-eight in number, were set at liberty. They were all elected to the parliament, an assembly which was principally composed of men ardent for popular reform. The king told them plainly and haughtily, that he had only called them to vote supplies. They immediately complied, but annexed to the vote of subsidy four conditions, securing freedom from arbitrary arrest and royal taxation. For two months the matter lay pending, and then the celebrated "Petition of Rights," embracing nearly the same particulars, was passed, and received the royal assent. Having thus obtained the money which he sought, Charles prorogued the parliament, privately resolving, however, not to fulfil the conditions of his agreement.

At this time the duke of Buckingham, who was at Portsmouth, preparing to take charge of a fresh expedition, perished by the hand of John Felton, a fanatical assassin, stimulated by private revenge and misguided zeal for his faction. The victim was only thirty-six, but had for a long time ruled England as completely as he had unworthily.

Sir Thomas Wentworth, one of the most distinguished of the liberal members, was now gained over by the king. He received title and office, and became the principal adviser of Charles, and the staunchest supporter of despotic measures. In 1629, parliament reassembled, and, after some preliminary disputes with the king, Sir John Eliot introduced a set of resolutions strongly denouncing Popery, and declaring any one who should levy or pay the obnoxious claim of "tonnage and poundage" an enemy to the state. Great confusion ensued, and some violence, but the motion was received and passed with acclamation, and the house then adjourned, disappointing the king, who had given orders to break up their meeting by force. Parliament was immediately dissolved, and Eliot, with other leaders of the opposition, was committed to the tower. All were heavily fined, and Eliot ended his days in prison. Charles now resolved to dispense altogether with parliaments, and a course of absolute despotism, destined to last for twelve years, immediately commenced.

Laud, the primate, a man of narrow views and a persecuting spirit, persuaded the king to enforce a great variety of religious usages and ceremonies which he prescribed. These so strongly

resembled those of the church of Rome, that the Pope even sent over an envoy, trusting that England was about to renew her submission to the See. Severe punishments were inflicted on all who opposed these innovations. Cropping, branding, the pillory, imprisonment, and enormous fines were freely inflicted. The violence and tyranny of the Star Chamber, in these times, fully equalled that of the worst despots by whom England had ever been oppressed.

The king, meanwhile, raised a large revenue by every species of exaction. Among other oppressions, he revived the odious monopolies and the forest laws, by which many persons were ruined. The large sums thus obtained, were applied to the support of government and the maintaining a brilliant and extravagant court. In spite, however, of many cases of individual hardship, and the tyranny exercised over conscience, the country in general flourished and prospered during this period—a result imputable, not to the system of government, but to the natural energy of the English people, stimulated by increasing civilization and new fields for enterprise. The tax of ship-money, levied upon the maritime parts of the country, for supplying the expenses of a fleet, had been submitted to, though with reluctance; but the king determined to collect it from all parts of the kingdom, and thus assure himself of a permanent revenue. This was resisted, and the memorable trial of John Hampden, in which the legality of this imposition was fully argued, occurred in 1637. It was adjudged lawful by a majority of one; but the assumption of absolute authority put forth by the king's council, and its confirmation by the judges, justly alarmed the people. The money, amounting to two hundred thousand pounds a-year, was paid with great dissatisfaction.

Persecution for freedom of speech and action on religious matters had now become so outrageous, that the Puritans and patriots began to turn their eyes for refuge to the New World. In 1629 a charter had been obtained for a colony in Massachusetts. More than three hundred persons had already sailed, and numbers, seeking freedom of conscience, now followed them. In 1638, many persons of eminence resolved to quit their country; and it is said that Hampden and his relation, Oliver Cromwell, were actually on board a vessel, when, by the royal proclamation, they were prevented from sailing. In Scotland, great commotions had been excited by the determination of the king and his advisers to insist on conformity to the English church. By the direction of Laud, many of his innovations

were ordered to be enforced; but the people every where received the English liturgy with resistance, and in some cases with violent disturbances. Their meetings to petition against the distasteful measures were declared treasonable, and both sides prepared for a resort to force. The "Solemn League and Covenant," denouncing the innovations, and pledging all its subscribers to resist them, was signed by nearly the whole Scottish nation. A free parliament and church assembly was also demanded. The assembly met; the king, dissembling, suddenly assented to all their demands; and they proceeded to overthrow the entire fabric of Scottish Episcopacy.

Meanwhile, Charles had raised supplies by every means in his power, and advanced into Scotland, with a force of twenty-three thousand men. His resisting subjects, under Lesley, lay at Dunselaw; where their camp resounded from morning to night with sermons, prayer, and psalmody. Finding their force superior, and his own disheartened, the king again consented to negotiate; a parliament and an assembly were again summoned; and the royal assent to the decision of the latter was again given. Nevertheless, by the advice of Laud and of Wentworth (now earl of Strafford,) the king resolved to make another attempt to subdue Scotland by force. Strafford, the lord-deputy, returned to Ireland, where he was absolute ruler, summoned his parliament, and obtained ample supplies of money and arms. Large sums were also voluntarily subscribed by the royalists of England.

An English parliament was now finally summoned, in 1640, though the liberal and Puritan party were in the majority; and the king, telling them he wanted no advice or interference, demanded a supply of money. They, however, headed by Pym, immediately commenced a debate upon the various grievances, and after a fruitless attempt at adjustment, were dissolved by the king in three weeks. Hostilities with the Scotch were at once commenced; and these, receiving forged letters of invitation, entered and took possession of the northern English counties—Charles being unable, from the want of funds and the disaffection of his troops, to oppose sufficient resistance. His power, which for twelve years had been exercised in such an absolute and tyrannical manner, was drawing to its close; and in the same year, he found himself under the necessity of summoning another parliament.

On the 3d of November, 1640, met the celebrated "Long Parliament"—a body composed mostly of men of high character and

influence, and having a strong majority of liberal members. Their first act of importance was to impeach the powerful earl of Strafford of high treason. The judgment of Hampden was reversed; and one of the judges was arrested on the bench, and taken to prison as an example of terror to the rest. Laud also was impeached and committed to the tower; while many of the imprisoned Puritans were released and compensated. The king's methods of raising money were declared illegal; and a bill, to which he was obliged to assent, was passed, providing for a triennial meeting of parliament. Petitions against Episcopacy poured in from all sides.

In hopes to save Strafford, the king admitted a number of liberal lords into the privy council, and even entertained a scheme for forming a cabinet of the chief members of the opposition—which project falling through, increased their bitterness. The trial of the earl took place at Westminster Hall, on the 22d of March, 1641. The favourite had every thing to apprehend, both from his own arbitrary practices and the temper of those opposed to him. Both as President of the North, and Governor of Ireland, his rule, though vigorous and effective, had been arbitrary and tyrannical in the extreme. All his advice and all his political influence had been directed to the purpose of making Charles an absolute and independent monarch. For thirteen days, charges were exhibited against him, from which he defended himself with great manliness and eloquence. His acts certainly did not legally amount to treason, and the house resorted to the odious measure of passing a bill of attainder—a proceeding fully as arbitrary and tyrannical as any of which their prisoner had been guilty. The popular clamour for his execution was great; and after some feeble and ineffectual attempts to save him, the king, to his eternal disgrace, signed a warrant for the execution of the man who had been his chief adviser, and whose crimes, if such they were, had been committed with his own sanction, and for his own advantage. "Put not your trust in princes," said the unfortunate man, on hearing of his betrayal. He died with the greatest courage and magnanimity, in the forty-ninth year of his age.

The king next assented to a bill providing that parliament should not be dissolved or adjourned until the grievances in question were redressed. Feeling themselves more secure, they next voted a large sum to the Scots, and suppressed the court of Star Chamber and that of High Commission. Some supplies were granted; but the king incurred renewed distrust by an attempt to

induce the army to declare for him. Parliament, however, from various causes, had lost much of its popularity. Church reform was again vehemently agitated without; and several measures were carried, attacking the prelates and enforcing Puritanism. The armies were disbanded, and Charles hastened to Scotland, where he increased the popular distrust by attempting to seize the persons of several noblemen, against whom he had a charge of treason.

Meanwhile, a terrible rebellion broke out in Ireland, where the native Catholics had long been jealous of the English heretical intruders. This discontent had been aggravated by a great usurping seizure on the part of the crown, and by the severities of Strafford. On the 24th of October, 1641, the original inhabitants, by previous agreement, rose simultaneously in Ulster and other places, expelled the English settlers, and seized their goods. They soon proceeded further, and an indiscriminate massacre commenced, accompanied with circumstances of atrocious cruelty. The priests and friars, it is said, were the principal inciters of this outrage, in which many thousands perished, and vast numbers were driven from their homes. Charles, having done much to conciliate the leading Scottish nobles, returned to his capital, where, by a reaction of popular feeling, his reception was marked with much warmth and loyalty. The opposition in parliament, displeased at this, passed a "Remonstrance," recapitulating all the illegal acts of the king, and laying the blame on the "malignant" party of royalists—Cromwell declaring that if it had not been carried, he and many others would have left England for ever. The bills which were proposed for the suppression of the Irish revolt, failed from the dispute between the king and parliament, as to the royal right of impressment; the commons feared to intrust him with an army; and the unfortunate Irish Protestants were sacrificed to the jealousy of these conflicting interests.

A bill, depriving the bishops of their votes in the House of Lords, was next proposed, and was accompanied with such popular violence, stimulated by the opposition party, that they were unable to attend parliament, and sent in a protest against all acts done in their absence. For this they were impeached and committed to the tower. Quarrels between the citizens and the king's guard increased, and blood was shed in some of these encounters.

In January, 1642, the king committed a piece of violence and imprudence that rendered the breach irreparable. Having accused

five members of the House of Commons, including Pym and Hampden, of treason, he went down to the house in person, attended by a numerous guard, for the purpose of seizing them. It is said that he was stimulated to this rash step by the haughty queen, who told him to go and "pull these rogues out by the ears," or never to see her more. Being warned beforehand, they escaped; the commons were furious at this invasion of their privileges; and the whole city took up arms, under the greatest excitement. Parliament dissolved for the present, averring themselves unsafe; and a committee was appointed to inquire into all the particulars. The king, beset with tumultuary petitioners, retired to Hampton court, at some distance from London. The house shortly met, and the five members, conducted by an immense procession, and receiving the highest honours, resumed their seats. Four thousand men on horseback, from Hampden's shire, came to complain of his accusation, and to proffer their services for the popular cause. The tower, garrisoned by the king's men, was blockaded by order of the parliament, and other hostile measures were taken—instigated, doubtless, by a knowledge of the king's designs, betrayed by a member of his household.

Parliament, which had long been anxious to get the entire control of the military force, now passed an act for putting all forts, castles, and other strong places, into the hands of such officers as they could confide in. This, with other measures, was sent to the lords, backed by the petitions of immense numbers of poor people, porters, women, and others, threatening, if refused, to take the law into their own hands. The queen was now despatched to Holland, with the crown jewels, to provide arms and ammunition for the coming contest. An irreconcilable dispute ensued, as to whether the power of command should be first vested in the king, without which he absolutely refused to sign the bill. In the civil war which was now approaching, the parliament were by no means free from blame. They had, in many instances, violated the constitution and the royal prerogative; they had imprisoned (in one case for life) those who spoke violently against their proceedings; and had intimidated the minority of their own body, by committing them to the tower, on the least license of debate. They had, moreover, encouraged riotous mobs and petitions on their own side, while promptly suppressing those of the royalists. Their only excuse for these acts may be found in the fact, that they were dealing with a man utterly faithless, and determined to crush them on the first opportunity; that it

was a struggle for life or death; and that, in their situation, they dared not stand upon abstract justice, or even allow fair play to their opponent. The point of open rupture was their demand and his refusal to surrender an undoubted legal authority over the troops.

The nobility and gentry of the north flocked around him, and he assumed a more elevated tone. With a few hundred attendants he went to Hull, for the purpose of securing the magazine; but Hotham, the governor, by order of parliament, refused to admit him. By the same authority, the stores were soon after removed to London. Both sides were now busy in enlisting and disciplining troops. Before actual hostilities, parliament sent the king an *ultimatum* of nineteen articles, putting all power into their own hands, and completely changing the constitution. He indignantly refused consent, and nine of the lords who had joined him were impeached. With four thousand men he made an unsuccessful demonstration against Hull, but was compelled to retire. Parliament voted to levy a large army; and by loans and voluntary contributions, they raised abundant supplies. The country was now every where divided against itself, parliament holding nearly all the strong places and magazines, and being supported by the inhabitants of most of the towns; while the great body of nobility and gentry, much of the rural population, and all the Catholics, espoused the cause of the king. But every county, town, and village was divided; and different members of the same family might often be found adhering to opposite sides.

The earl of Essex was appointed to the command of the parliamentary army—a large and motley array, many of them, as Cromwell said, "decayed servingmen and tapsters, and such kind of fellows." His own regiment, composed of substantial countrymen, formed a notable exception. Goring, the governor of Portsmouth, having declared for the king, a force was sent against him by parliament. Charles hereupon proclaimed Essex and his followers traitors, and summoned all loyal subjects to meet him in arms at Nottingham on the 25th of August, (1642). From this place he moved on that day with a small force, which, by the time he arrived at Shrewsbury, amounted to eighteen thousand men. He was also joined by his nephews, the Princes Rupert and Maurice, who each received important commands. Goring at Portsmouth, and the marquis of Hertford, in the West, had been overcome by the parliamentary forces; and on the 23d of October, the two armies commanded by the king and Essex, engaged at Edgehill, a bleak

eminence overlooking the Vale of the Red Horse. For the first time since the days of Richard III., Englishmen now engaged in battle among themselves. Rupert making a fiery charge, scattered the force opposed to him; but pursuing them too far, was unable to return in time to render effectual assistance to the king. Night terminated the conflict, two thousand having been slain, of whom nearly an equal number belonged to either side. Both claimed the victory, but the real advantage lay with the king, who, after some negotiation, marched to Oxford, and passed the winter there. In January, a committee from London waited on him with fourteen unreasonable propositions, to which he replied by others quite as impracticable. The next month the queen returned, having narrowly escaped the violence of the enemy with her life, and was impeached of high treason by the parliament.

The advantage in various local contests had been chiefly on the side of the royalists; but parliament disavowed all treaties or truces which the different factions had concluded, and Essex, with fifteen thousand men, sat down before Reading, which surrendered on honourable conditions. Here he remained, detained by disease and desertion among his troops.

A plot in London for the king's benefit, and another in Bristol, were detected by the commons, and several persons of eminence were hanged—the poet Waller, who was engaged in the former, basely betraying his associates. Stringent measures followed; but the parliamentary army, under their general, Waller, after some indecisive engagements, sustained a severe defeat near Devizes, (13th July, 1643). The queen, with a large reinforcement of troops and military stores, joined her husband, and the royal cause, encouraged by several victories, began to flourish. Rupert, assisted by Colonel Hurry, a deserter from the parliamentary army, sallying from Oxford, had fallen upon the quarters of Essex, near that town, and had defeated or captured several regiments. In the action which ensued during their return, the gallant and patriotic Hampden was mortally wounded, and died in a few days. His death was an irreparable loss to England; for he was respected by both sides, and might probably by his mediation have averted the calamitous scenes which followed. On the 27th of July, Rupert took the town of Bristol, and Prince Maurice about the same time reduced the most of Devonshire. Essex had retired in discomfiture to Kingston.

The affairs of parliament now began to look desperate, and they

sent a commission to Scotland, to entreat assistance. London was also intrenched; but it seems probable that the king might have marched thither, and perhaps ended the war at once. He stopped to lay siege to Gloucester, which soon after was relieved by Essex, with a force of fifteen thousand men. The latter wished to avoid an engagement, but was furiously attacked by Rupert with five thousand horse; and the next day a general action took place near Newbury. The contest lasted until night, with great loss to the royalists, the gallant and patriotic earl of Falkland being among the slain. Essex returned to London, and the king again wintered at Oxford. During the siege, several nobles had repaired from London to the king; but with his usual ill-judgment, he received them coldly, and they were soon again found in the ranks of the opposition. He also did great injury to his cause by making a private peace with the rebellious Irish, receiving a large sum from them, and ordering the regiments stationed there to return to England.

A solemn league and covenant had now been entered into with the Scots, by which the latter were to furnish twenty-one thousand men, and a committee from both nations was to sit at London, and carry on the war. A new "Great Seal" was put in commission, bearing the impress of the parliament in session. Soon after these events, died the celebrated John Pym, chief leader and prompter of the opposition—a man of great talent and republican principles, but somewhat implicated in the more questionable transactions of his party. To satisfy the popular affection for parliaments, Charles summoned one on his own account, which met at Oxford in January, 1644. The rival body at Westminster, however, refused to listen to any terms of accommodation. Both parties raised money by every means in their power; by forced and voluntary loans, taxes, excises, and the sequestration or plunder of such property of their opponents as could be reached. The Irish troops, which arrived and joined a detachment of the king's forces, at first gained some advantages, but were finally defeated, with great loss, by Fairfax and Brereton. The royal forces, under the earl of Brentford and Hopton, were also defeated by Waller. The Scots, under the earl of Leven, advanced into England, and effecting a union with their allies, under Fairfax, Lord Kimbolton, and Cromwell, laid siege to York, which was defended by the earl of Newcastle. Charles, on the approach of Essex and Waller, quitted Oxford, but afterwards routed the latter near Bunbury, and forced him to retreat. Rupert, with twenty

thousand men, marched to the relief of York, which was hard pressed; and, passing the enemy, entered the city. Having received positive orders from the king to engage the besiegers, he marched out the next day, (July 2d,) and the two armies, each about twenty-five thousand in number, encountered on Marston Moor. Rupert, with his usual impetuous valour, charged the right wing of the enemy, and drove them from the field. The attack on the centre was also successful, and the Scots fled in confusion; but Cromwell, who commanded the other wing, defeated his opponents. Sir Thomas Fairfax, rallying his troops, joined him; they took the royalists in the flank; and the battle ended by a complete victory of the parliamentary army. Four thousand were slain, the greater part royalists; fifteen hundred of them were made prisoners, and all their artillery and baggage was taken. Rupert retired to the West, and Newcastle, with other lords, betook himself to the continent. York surrendered, and the Scots, moving homewards, took Newcastle by storm. In the west of England, however, the royal cause was more fortunate; and Essex, surrounded in Cornwall by the forces of Prince Maurice, left his army, which soon was obliged to surrender. An indecisive action with the parliamentary forces, under Waller and the earl of Manchester, during which Charles fled from the field, terminated the campaign.

The revolutionary party was now much divided, especially by religious schisms. Cromwell, an independent in religion and a republican in politics, was embroiled with some of the leaders of rank on the parliamentary side. An ordinance was passed, requiring members of either house to lay down their commands and offices. The army was at the same time remodelled; Sir Thomas Fairfax being made commander-in-chief (1645).

The trial of Archbishop Laud, accused of attempting to introduce popery and arbitrary power, had been for a long time on hand; Prynne, whose ears had twice been cut off during the late tyranny, being one of the principal conductors of the proceedings against him. The accused primate made an excellent defence, and a conviction of treason being found impossible, an attainder was passed. He was beheaded on Tower Hill, in the seventy-second year of his age, dying with all that constancy and courage which has usually distinguished the execution of religious or political martyrs.

Through the Scottish influence, a form of worship similar to the Presbyterian was introduced, with penalties provided for those who

adhered to the Episcopal rites. Nearly two thousand clergymen and collegiate officers were, at the same time, ejected from their livings. On the 20th of January, by mutual agreement, commissioners on both sides of the civil contest met at Uxbridge, for the purpose of discussing the subjects in dispute; but after more than a month's debate, were unable to agree upon terms. The king, always sanguine, was rendered more confident of the final restoration of his full power by the late successes of the earl of Montrose. That devoted partisan, with a force of Irish and Highlanders, had gained a brilliant series of victories in Scotland, but finally, overpowered by numbers, was compelled to retreat into the mountains. On the 9th of May, Charles, with ten thousand men, took the field, the enemy retiring before him. He stormed and plundered Leicester; but on the 13th, Fairfax, with the parliamentary army, engaged him near the village of Naseby. Rupert, as usual, charged successfully, but, through mismanagement, threw away the advantage; whereas Cromwell, who commanded the right wing, having broken the opposing ranks, fell upon the rear of the king's centre, and decided the day. After an obstinate and bravely-contested action, during which the leaders on both sides distinguished themselves, Charles was compelled to withdraw from the field.

The parliament gained an important prize in his private letters, which they shortly afterwards published. These fully showed his insincerity in the late negotiations, and his application for assistance to foreign powers and to Ireland.

He now began to expect nothing but final ruin; and every day brought tidings of the surrender of some royal stronghold; yet he would not consent to any other terms than those which he had offered at Uxbridge. After ravaging the eastern counties, he again took refuge in Oxford, where he was greatly encouraged by news of the fresh and brilliant successes of Montrose. The earl, breaking from the mountains with a force of six thousand men, had defeated the Scottish army with terrible slaughter; great part of the country submitted to him; and Lesley, with his forces in England, was compelled to return in haste to his own country. With five thousand men, the king again sallied forth from Oxford, but after some successes, was defeated with loss by General Poynts, and finally returned with only five hundred of his followers. Montrose, too, after a gallant defence, had been also overcome by numbers, and was again forced to retire into the Highlands. The king, meanwhile,

had been in treaty with the Irish Catholics, who, in consideration of religious toleration, engaged to supply him liberally with men and money; but the misfortunes of the royal cause in England prevented any effectual aid. The whole south and west of England had been reduced to submission; and many strongholds, some of which had held out for years, were reduced, one after the other. The parliamentary army, new-modelled by Cromwell and other able commanders, had become, for its numbers, the most irresistible which the world has ever seen. The remarkable men who composed it, were mostly zealous Puritans, men of sober life, but filled with political and religious enthusiasm, fighting alike with the zeal of patriots and fanatics. Nevertheless, Charles kept up separate negotiations with the Scots, the Independents, and the Presbyterians—thinking, and justly, that his name and party, joined to either of these, would secure it a preponderance. As the parliamentary forces closed around Oxford, he left that city in disguise, and travelled into Norfolk, sending an emissary to negotiate terms with the Scots. They agreed to receive the king, and, it would appear, held out hopes of assistance never intended to be realized. He repaired to their camp at Newcastle, on the 5th of May, 1646, and soon found himself held in a kind of honourable imprisonment. He there rejected further propositions from his revolted subjects, the same in effect which had been debated before. On the 1st of February, 1647, the Scots surrendered him to the parliamentary commissioners, four hundred thousand pounds having been voted them for their services. This has given rise to the accusation, which seems not entirely unfounded, that they delivered him up to secure the payment of their arrears. The civil war, which had endured nearly four years, was now at an end. The king was in the hands of his enemies, and the last strongholds of his party soon surrendered. Montrose, by the command of his master, laid down his arms, and retired to the Continent. Dublin, and other Irish towns, with their garrisons, were surrendered by Ormond, the lord lieutenant. The contest, carried on so long, and with such bravery on both sides, was disgraced by few of those excesses (either during its continuance or after the final triumph) which commonly distinguish a social war.

The Presbyterian influence was predominant in parliament, but the Independents controlled the army; and, moved by Cromwell, now their leading adviser, they stubbornly refused agreement to the

OLIVER CROMWELL,

LORD PROTECTOR OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND.

THIS singular man, perhaps the most original character in British history, was born in moderate circumstances, at Huntingdon, on the 25th of April, 1599 Both in parliament and at the head of the revolutionary forces, he played a most conspicuous part against Charles I. and the loyalist party After the execution of the king, he attained, under the title of "Protector," the actual sovereignty of the three kingdoms, and, during the remainder of his life, held the government with a firm and prudent hand. His character appears to have been composed of an extraordinary mixture of piety, courage, ambition, hypocrisy, remorselessness, and love of country. He expired September 3d, 1658, worn out with the cares of war and of empire

schemes in agitation for their disbandment, or employment in Ireland. Their arrearages of pay, and certain other satisfactions, were peremptorily demanded. At length, parliament, alarmed at the attitude of their powerful and dangerous servants, issued positive orders to disband them. To this they replied by seizing the king's person, and conducting him to Newmarket—a step not disagreeable to Charles, who was encouraged (perhaps by Cromwell, who had secretly planned this movement) with the hope of receiving the support of the soldiers. Parliament recalled their order, but in vain. The army marched near London, and the legislative body, overawed, sought to appease it; eleven of the most obnoxious members being compelled to seek a sort of voluntary exile. Their prisoner was treated with great respect and indulgence.

Fairfax, the parliamentary general, was entirely under the control of Cromwell and his son-in-law, Ireton, who both really entertained designs of restoring the royal authority; but Charles, elated by a belief that the people were moving in his favour, refused "Proposals" from the army, far more reasonable than any which had yet been offered him. Parliament, urged by the citizens, at last prepared for resistance, and endeavoured to levy a force more devoted to their interests. They were, nevertheless, compelled, in effect, to put the city into the hands of the discontented troops.

Meanwhile, the king enjoyed great liberty, on his parole, and had frequent interviews with Cromwell. The latter, with Ireton, earnestly sought to effect an accommodation, on the basis of the late "Proposals" of the army, but met with such opposition, both in the house and army, especially from the "levellers," that they could not carry out their views. It is said that, in event of success, Cromwell was to have been made an earl, and, with Ireton, held certain important offices. Charles, however, meanwhile, was in secret treaty with the Scots, and it is said that Cromwell intercepted a letter to the queen, declaring his intention of hanging his present allies, whenever he should recover his power. The anti-royal party, moreover, was too strong, and a plot was formed, it is said, by the levellers, to get possession of the king's person. Charles, on learning this, (probably from Cromwell, who desired to save him,) privately escaped, and repaired to Sussex. Thence, intending to escape to the Continent, he betook himself to the Isle of Wight, where Hammond, the parliamentary governor, received him honourably, and permitted him to go at large.

Cromwell, meanwhile, had suppressed a dangerous mutiny among the troops, and had executed one of the ringleaders. Perceiving, however, the fixed determination of the army to destroy the king, he determined to preserve his popularity by joining their party; at the same time, warning Charles to escape as soon as possible. The latter, however, was in treaty with the Scots; and, rejecting terms again offered by the parliament, entered into a private agreement with the Scottish commissioners. On learning this, Hammond immediately put him in greater security, and thus frustrated all the measures which were attempted for his escape. Parliament immediately (January, 1648,) passed resolutions to use no further negotiation with him; and made it high treason for any one to communicate with him without their permission. The great body of the people, though in favour of royalty and the existing constitution, were held in check by the army, which was mostly opposed to monarchy as a matter of religion.

The Scottish royalists, in pursuance of their agreement, attempted to raise forces, but found much difficulty, from the opposition of the clergy, who were dissatisfied that the Presbytery was not made absolutely compulsive on the English. The English partisans of the royal cause, tired of waiting, took up arms prematurely, and after a few successes, were defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell. The Scots, with fourteen thousand men, finally entered the kingdom. Sir Marmaduke Langdale, with four thousand men, engaged the parliamentary army at Preston, and fought with such intrepidity, that had he been supported by his Scottish allies, he would undoubtedly have defeated them. But the latter concluded a series of feeble movements by a retreat on this occasion; their infantry was forced to surrender; and the English royalists dispersed. Colchester, after a gallant defence of three months, was taken by Fairfax, and several eminent royalists were executed by sentence of a court martial. The prince of Wales, with nineteen ships, sailed from Holland to the Downs, and for some time negotiated with parliament; but was unable to bring the enemy's fleet to an engagement, and was finally compelled to return by the want of provisions. Parliament, alarmed at the feeling in the army, opened fresh communication with the king; but nothing was agreed on—Charles firmly refusing to abolish the Episcopal church, or to surrender his friends to their vengeance. Petitions for a republic in its fullest forms were presented to parliament; and in some, especially from

the Independents, the king's punishment was strongly suggested. Finally, a large "Remonstrance" came from the army, demanding the same things in explicit terms. It was rejected, but the king, in some alarm, yielded to the demands of parliament, though only ostensibly. He was then again conveyed to Carisbrooke castle, in the Isle of Wight. Here he might have escaped, but refused to break his parole. He was soon after seized by a detachment of the soldiers, and confined in Hurst castle, on a rock in the sea. The army immediately marched to London, and there took up their quarters. Parliament assumed a firm position, and voted, by a large majority, that the king's concessions were sufficient. But on the following day, December 6th, 1648, two regiments came to the house, and Colonel Pride, the commander of them, forcibly detained all members opposed to the will of the army. Some were imprisoned, and others excluded from the house, which was thus reduced to about fifty members, and was afterwards commonly styled the Rump Parliament. Cromwell had been absent, but on his return approved of the proceeding.

Every thing was now done according to the will of the soldiery, the real arbiters of the fate of the kingdom. The miserable remnant of a parliament tried in vain to throw the responsibility of the king's arraignment upon their masters, the army; but were compelled to continue their work. On the 1st of January, 1649, they voted it treason in a king of England to levy war against the parliament and people; and sent an ordinance for the king's trial to the lords. The latter, only sixteen in number, unanimously rejected it, and the commons, voting their own house the supreme authority of the nation, passed the ordinance themselves. An hundred and thirty-five persons, members, lawyers, officers of the army, and citizens, were appointed as a court; and on the 20th, about seventy of them attended at Westminster Hall, where the proceedings were opened with considerable state and formality. An accusation was publicly read, charging the king with attempting to "rule according to his will," with traitorously levying war against the people and parliament, enumerating the various battles in which he had been present, and finally impeaching him as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and a public and implacable enemy to the Commonwealth of England." He smiled on hearing these abusive epithets, and answered by demanding their authority for these proceedings, and refusing to acknowledge the legality of his arraignment. The trial lasted several

days, Charles still denying both the authority of the court and the crimes alleged against him; and reasonably asserting that their proceeding was a tyrannical exertion of "power without law." On the 27th, the king waived all further defence, seeing that it was useless. He was found guilty, and sentence of death was passed against him by a unanimous vote of all present, sixty-seven in number. He was refused liberty of speech, and various insults were offered him on his way back, which he bore with much patience and kingly magnanimity.

On the next day, a proposal was made to him by some of the principal persons in the army and parliament, that his life and crown should be secured to him on certain conditions, which would place almost entire power in their hands and those of the army. This, to his honour, he indignantly rejected. Ambassadors sent from Holland interceded for him to no effect, and a warrant for his execution was signed by fifty-nine of the commissioners. It is said that Cromwell, with that strange buffoonery which he would sometimes mix with the most serious business, marked one of his fellow-judges in the face with the pen which signed his name, and received the same compliment in return.

On the 30th of January, the king, who had throughout evinced the highest calmness and self-possession, was conducted through a window of the palace at Whitehall, upon a scaffold built in front of it. He made an address, in vindication of his career, but admitted that he suffered justly for having consented to the execution of Strafford. He also declared that he died a martyr to the rights of the people. Having performed his devotions, he said to the attending clergyman, "Remember," knelt down, and was beheaded at one blow by a masked executioner. A dismal groan broke forth from the multitude assembled before the scaffold, and many pressed forward to dip their handkerchiefs in his blood. Charles Stuart died in the forty-ninth year of his age, and in the twenty-fourth of a reign which, for several years, had been merely nominal. His private morality and domestic virtues have, in the eyes of many, thrown a mantle over the crimes and errors of his political career. He was bigoted, despotic, and insincere; and had doubtless forfeited his throne by many acts of injustice and oppression. Still, his execution was a violent and unlawful procedure, wholly discountenanced by most of the English people. It was the work of men equally unprincipled with himself, and especially of a body of military

officers, who felt insecure so long as any one was alive who could call them to account for their share in the revolution. Its value, however, as an example to arbitrary rulers, has been great; being the first instance in which a king had been tried and executed by his own subjects for offences against them. The Lords Hamilton, Holland, and Capel were beheaded a few days afterwards.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

IMMEDIATELY after the execution of Charles, the office of king and the House of Peers were abolished by the commons, and a new Council of State, consisting of forty-five members, was chosen for the executive. Bradshaw, who had presided at the trial, was made president of it, and the illustrious Milton was Latin secretary. By new elections, and the rëadmission of certain members, parliament was increased to about an hundred and fifty in number. The great majority of the people, especially the Royalists and Presbyterians, were opposed to the new government; but it was supported by the zealous Independents, and especially by an army ably officered, and forty thousand strong. The *levellers*, however, both in the army and elsewhere, poured in petitions for yet further changes; formidable mutinies broke out, but were suppressed by the energy of Cromwell, who defeated the malcontents, and executed a number of them.

When the news of the king's execution reached Scotland, the parliament of that nation forthwith proclaimed the prince of Wales, under the title of Charles II., on condition of his adhering to the covenant. The prince, who was at the Hague, gave unsatisfactory answers, hoping much from Montrose, who, with a few hundred adventurers, had landed in the North. He was, however, defeated, and captured by his enemies, the Presbyterian party, and was hanged with much ignominy at Edinburgh. He perished in the thirty-ninth year of his age, having won a wide renown for valour and loyalty,

though occasionally stained with cruelty. Other royalists of distinction shared a similar fate. Charles, on learning the event, publicly declared his approval of the fate of his devoted follower, and at once closed with the conditions of the Scots. He landed in their country, where his insincerity was sufficiently punished in the miserable treatment he received. Though allowed the title and forms of royalty, he was constantly watched; and was harassed almost to death by the interminable prayers and sermons of the clergy, reflecting on the guilt of his father, the idolatry of his mother, (a Catholic,) and especially on any levity of his own.

In Ireland, the royalists, assisted by the Scottish army, had gained considerable successes; and Cromwell and Ireton, with other able officers, were sent over. Their enemies had sustained a severe reverse already; and, two weeks after his arrival, Cromwell stormed the town of Drogheda, put the garrison, upwards of two thousand, to the sword, and massacred a great number of the defenceless inhabitants. "Their friars and priests," he remarks in his despatch, "were knocked on the head promiscuously with the others." In the church alone, one thousand of the unfortunate people were massacred. At Wexford, which he took shortly afterwards, similar atrocities were perpetrated; three hundred women, who had gathered around the great cross, as some protection, being all murdered together. The unhappy prisoners were shipped as slaves to the colonies. By these and similar exhibitions of courage and ferocity, he took many strongholds, and departed in May, 1650, leaving the command to Ireton.

Fairfax resigned his command, and Cromwell was appointed by parliament captain-general of all forces in the commonwealth. On the 22d of July, he marched into Scotland with sixteen thousand veteran soldiers. His opponents, occupying favourable positions, might have repulsed him; but were embarrassed by the fanatical zeal of the clergy, who insisted that all "malignants" should be dismissed from the army, that it might be composed entirely of "saints." The army, thus purified, under Lesley, engaged the invader at Dunbar, and was entirely defeated, with a loss of three thousand slain, ten thousand prisoners, and all their artillery and baggage. The whole country south of the Forth submitted to the conqueror. The defeated nation now gladly allowed the proscribed malignants to enlist in their behalf; Charles was crowned at Scone on the 1st of January, 1651, and by great exertions an army of twenty thousand

men was got together under arms at Stirling. Cromwell, however, had pushed his conquests so rapidly, that their communication with the North was entirely cut off, and Charles determined on the desperate step of a march into England. With fourteen thousand men, he entered Carlisle; and marching rapidly to Worcester, was there solemnly proclaimed. Few, however, joined his standard; and the parliament, recovering from the alarm into which they had been thrown, proclaimed all his abettors guilty of high treason, and ordered the militia to Worcester. Cromwell himself arriving, found himself at the head of thirty thousand men, and speedily engaged the Scottish army, consisting of less than half that number. They fought for five hours with great gallantry, but were overpowered by numbers, and driven into the city. Cromwell stormed the fort, put its garrison of fifteen hundred to the sword, and turned its guns upon the city. This victory (which Cromwell called his "crowning mercy") was overwhelming—three thousand of the Scots being slain, and nearly all the others made prisoners. Several distinguished leaders were executed, and the prisoners were barbarously sent to the plantations as slaves—a piece of cruelty first commenced by the parliament, and afterwards continued by the kings. Large estates and honours were bestowed on the victorious general and his officers.

The defeated prince, flying in disguise, met with many narrow escapes and strange adventures. At one time, surrounded by enemies, he was compelled to secrete himself among the boughs of a tree, afterwards called, from this circumstance, the "Royal Oak," and greatly venerated by all loyal subjects. He finally escaped to Normandy, after having been assisted or recognised by more than forty persons, not one of whom betrayed him.

Scotland now entirely submitted, and a commission was appointed by the English parliament to regulate its affairs. A union was projected; but before the terms were settled, parliament itself had fallen, and Scotland remained a conquered country, secured by a chain of new fortresses. Ireton, after subduing nearly all Ireland, died of the plague, and Ludlow completed its subjugation. A commission was appointed to settle its affairs, and all who had been opposed to parliament were punished in the severest manner. Two hundred, many of them people of rank, were executed, and ruinous forfeitures transferred a great part of the landed property to the soldiers of Cromwell, and to other adventurers. The natives, driven from their possessions, became formidable by private robbery and violence.

The Dutch, aggrieved by several acts of hostility, had fitted out a large fleet, and their admiral, Van Tromp, had fought an indecisive action with the English commander, Blake. War was soon after declared by the parliament, and the Dutch commander's fleet, being dispersed by a storm, lost five of its ships to the English. De Witt and De Ruyter, who succeeded him, fought other naval battles without any decisive result. Van Tromp, being restored to his command, sailed with seventy ships to the Downs, and engaged Admiral Blake, who had only half that number. They fought an entire day, when the English admiral, who had lost five ships, ran up the river, and Van Tromp, with a broom at his mast-head, for some time insultingly swept the English channel. This disgrace was, however, speedily avenged. With seventy sail, and large reinforcements of marines, Blake again encountered him on the 18th of February, 1653, while convoying a fleet of merchantmen; and, in an action of three days, the Dutch lost thirty-five vessels, nine of them ships of war.

The Long Parliament, which had sat for twelve years, and which had degenerated into a mere faction of selfish men, seeking their own interests, was near its end. Aware of the ambition of Cromwell, they commenced disbanding the army, but were checked by a forcible petition, aiming at their own authority. During the winter of 1652–3, the general had carefully fomented the discontent among his officers, representing the greediness of the parliament, and its neglect of their interests. Finally, on the 20th of October, as the house was about to pass a bill thwarting his wishes, he went down to them with a party of soldiers, whom he left in the lobby. As the speaker was putting the question, he arose and commenced a speech, warming as he proceeded. Accusing them of injustice, self-interest, and other faults, he cried, "The Lord has done with you, and chosen other instruments for carrying on his work that are more worthy." A short altercation ensued; he stamped his foot, and the soldiers entered. After abusing several of the members personally, and accusing them of drunkenness, debauchery, &c., he cleared the house of them, ordering "that fool's bawble," the mace, to be carried off. No effective resistance was made by any one, and this celebrated body was dispersed without the least sympathy from the nation which it had latterly tyrannized over and plundered.

CHARGE OF CROMWELL AT THE BATTLE OF WORCESTER.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE PROTECTORATE, ETC.

By agreement of Cromwell and the leading officers, a new council of state was appointed, consisting of thirteen members, in imitation of Christ and the apostles—nine of them, Cromwell included, being officers. He perceived, however, that something in the form of a parliament must be convoked to satisfy the people, and accordingly there met at Whitehall an hundred and twenty persons, selected by the council from a number chosen by the congregational churches. In a "grave, seasonable, and Christian speech," he informed them that the reign of Christ would, he supposed, commence from that date, and gave them a written authority to act for fifteen months. This assembly, called Barebone's Parliament, (from Praise God Barebone, a member,) was an honest but wrong-headed set of men, who commenced the necessary work of reform with injudicious alacrity. Besides useful enactments for the abolishment of sinecures, for economy, for education, &c., they at once fell upon the system of law, which they proposed to abolish entirely, and to substitute a kind of pocket code, accessible to all—a scheme, from the diversity and magnitude of the subject, utterly impracticable. They also attacked the right of presentation to livings, and thus brought the whole bar, the clergy, and the aristocracy in opposition to them. Cromwell, seeing their want of judgment, and their feeble position, induced a considerable portion to retire; and the remainder were unceremoniously turned out, like the Long Parliament, by a file of soldiers. Nearly all gave in their resignations, and the council forthwith adopted a new constitution, conferring upon Cromwell an authority altogether regal.

On the 16th of December, 1653, he was installed with great state at Westminster in the office of "Protector of the Commonwealth," which he accepted with feigned reluctance. By the new instrument he was to hold the supreme authority, assisted by a council, and to exercise all the functions of royalty. A parliament was to be summoned once in three years, and, for five months, was not to be dissolved, except by its own consent. Provision was made against

royalists, Catholics, and other enemies of the commonwealth. This piece of usurpation was probably a fortunate thing for the nation, which might otherwise have fallen from one state of anarchy into another. The protector took advantage of the authority placed in his hands until the meeting of parliament, to decree an ordinance of union with Scotland, and other important matters. A conspiracy of the royalists for his assassination was detected, and several of the contrivers were executed.

Success had meanwhile attended the British arms. On the 2d of June, the Dutch fleet of an hundred sail, commanded by Tromp, De Ruyter, and others, fell in with that of the English, of equal force, under General Monk, Dean, Penn, and Lawson. After an action of an entire day, the English fleet, rĕinforced by Blăke, gained the victory with the loss of a single ship, while their opponents, whose vessels were mostly smaller, lost twenty-one. In an another action, with the same force, under Monk and Tromp, the latter, after a long and doubtful contest, was again defeated, and fell in the fight. Peace was declared in 1654; and commercial treaties were also made with other powers.

The elections for parliament had been perfectly free; and it was soon evident that the party of the protector was in a minority. The members immediately commenced a vigorous debate upon his authority and their own; and for the third time he employed military force, and excluded all who would not sign a "Recognition" of four points. These were: Supreme power in one man—successive parliaments—liberty of conscience—and a united command over the army by both parliament and protector. About this time, Cromwell, in one of his usual frolics, attempting to drive six fiery horses, presented to him by a German prince, was upset, and nearly lost his life, much to the delight of the Cavaliers. As soon as the five months were at an end, he dissolved the parliament in the midst of their business—reproaching them with their inertness and encouragement to the enemy.

A singular coalition between the royalists and ultra-republicans was now planned, and an ineffectual rising was made. A number of the leaders being apprehended, were executed, and the other prisoners were shipped for slaves to Barbadoes. Severe measures were now taken against the royalists, especially noblemen, cavaliers, and clergy, and excessive taxes were imposed on the disaffected party. To levy these, and to carry out his other arbitrary measures, he

divided England into eleven districts, each under a major-general. These officers had almost unlimited power, and the nation soon found that the despotism of the Stuarts had been feeble, compared with the iron rule of its new master.

Foreign affairs were conducted with vigour and manly spirit. The protector demanded of Spain free trade in the Atlantic, and non-molestation of English subjects by the Inquisition. The Spanish minister answered that the two points in question were the two eyes of his master, neither of which he would allow to be put out. Cromwell had, meanwhile, prepared two fleets, one of which, of thirty sail, under Blake, had gone to the Mediterranean, enforcing satisfaction for English losses, and chastising the piratical states of Africa. The other, of the same force, had sailed to the West Indies, and, after an attempt on Hispaniola, rendered fruitless by mutiny and disease, made a descent on Jamaica. A terrible persecution of the Protestants in Piedmont called forth his interference, and the duke of Savoy was compelled to allow them the free exercise of their religion. This occasion also formed the subject of those sublime verses of Milton, commencing,

> "Avenge, Oh Lord, thy slaughtered saints, whose bones
> Lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold."

A treaty of alliance with France was concluded, and the Jews, through the protector's liberality, were permitted to reside in England, whence they had been banished since the reign of Edward I. An extraordinary and somewhat formidable alliance was secretly made between Charles, the levellers, and the court of Spain. Meanwhile, Cromwell summoned a parliament for September, 1656. In spite of the exertions of government, many hostile members were returned; but, as the council was empowered to examine their qualifications, about one hundred were excluded, under various pretexts, such as immorality, &c. Large supplies were voted for the war with Spain; and Cromwell entertained strong hopes of receiving the title of king, to which he had for some time aspired. To conciliate the popular favour, he refused to protect the major-generals from suits for their previous oppressions. Another scheme for his assassination was disconcerted, but the chief conspirator died mysteriously before execution.

When the first movement in favour of his elevation was made in the house, great excitement and disorder ensued; but after long

debate, and strong opposition from the army, it was voted, in a "Humble Petition and Advice," that he should be requested to accept the title of king. He affected great surprise and consternation, deferring his answer. The opposition of the army, his main dependance, was, however, so implacable, that he perceived the danger of assenting; and in a long, embarrassed speech before parliament, to the surprise of almost every one, declined accepting the new honour. The word "protector," was substituted in the "Petition," which empowered him to appoint his successor, and to nominate members for the "Other House," as it was phrased. He was inaugurated with great solemnity, and with somewhat of regal ceremony, at Westminster, on the 12th of May, 1657. The house then adjourned for six months. At this time appeared the celebrated pamphlet of Colonel Titus, entitled "Killing no Murder," and strongly advocating his assassination.

Admiral Blake, after several brilliant exploits against the Spanish fleets, and the capture of much treasure, died while rëentering the harbour of Portsmouth. He was interred, with a magnificent funeral, in Westminster Abbey.

Parliament again met in January, 1658, the protector having summoned sixty persons, mostly nobles and gentlemen, to form the "Other House." But the excluded members of the commons had been allowed to resume their seats; the rights and title of the other body were immediately discussed; and Cromwell, perceiving that his authority was not preponderant, went down to them, and, after various reproaches, dissolved them—thus for the fourth time taking the entire government forcibly into his own hands.

He now seemed at the height of his power. Conspiracies and preparations for invasion were disconcerted by his address; his arms and policy prospered abroad; but he was oppressed with deep melancholy, and constantly dreaded assassination. The death of his favourite daughter Elizabeth, added to his grief; and it is said that, in her last moments, she remonstrated with him on his course of violence and usurpation. His own illness soon followed, and he seems to have manifested some anxiety concerning an hereafter, though comforting himself with the reflection that he had once been in a state of grace, from which, his chaplain assured him, it was impossible to fall. On the 3d of September, the anniversary of the victories of Dunbar and Worcester, and which he had ever regarded as his fortunate day, death

"Deposed him gently from his throne of force,
And laid him with the earth's preceding clay."

A terrible storm, which accompanied this event, was variously interpreted by his adherents and the royalists, according their own sentiments. The career of this remarkable man, originally an obscure country gentleman, forms the best comment upon his character and principles. Commencing with patriotism and religious enthusiasm, (which never quite forsook him,) he ended with engrossing ambition.

The funeral of the late protector was conducted in a style of magnificence which England had never before witnessed; and his son Richard was proclaimed in his stead, without any opposition. He was a man of amiable temper, but unfit for the stormy and perilous times in which he assumed this weighty office. He was speedily obliged to make concessions to the army, and in January, 1659, summoned a parliament. The Protectorists constituted about one-half of the house; Republicans and Moderates, among whom were some royalists, the remainder. His recognition was carried with great difficulty, after a fierce debate. The Republicans united with the army; and the majority, in alarm, voted that the officers should no longer meet in council. The troops, however, disobeyed the protector, and adhered to their own commanders. He was consequently obliged to dissolve parliament, and put himself into their hands. By a general council of the officers, the remains of the "Long Parliament" (dissolved by Oliver in 1653) were again summoned, and sat in their house, to the number of forty-two. While the various factions in the house and army were debating over their respective plans, the royalists were secretly active. The leading Presbyterians were all won over to the cause of Charles, and it is even said that Richard, now the mere shadow of a ruler, tempted by the offer of a title and a large pension, entertained the same views. A premature rising, however, in Cheshire, was easily suppressed by Lambert, who then hastened to London, where he was in hopes to gain the supreme power. After much altercation among the ambitious officers, and some show of military force, parliament was again dissolved, and the power left with the council of the army until another could be summoned.

General Monk, who commanded in Scotland, was a man of moderate views and supposed to be a supporter of the present form of

government. Lambert was sent against him by the army; but he amused him with negotiation, meanwhile strengthening his own authority in every possible way. In England, the officers continually lost ground; the fleet and various strongholds declared against them; and finally, in November, 1659 the soldiers in London, deserting their officers, declared for parliament, and rēinstated the remains of the Rump. These immediately rēmodelled the army, dismissed fifteen hundred officers, and proceeded to punish their late disturbers. Fairfax and Monk had seized upon York, but the latter, profoundly dissembling his real sentiments, refused to proclaim the king, and even caned an officer who charged him with the design. Being invited to London, he marched thither with five thousand men, still keeping his intentions wrapt in impenetrable secresy. Meanwhile, the royalists were every where busy, and the loyalty of the city daily increased. The common council was at open variance with the parliament; and Monk, seeing that he could act with safety, insisted upon a dissolution, that a free parliament might at once be summoned. This resolution caused great joy and excitement among the citizens—the excluded members, some of whom had been expelled for more than eleven years, resumed their seats; and all acts against the king and royalists were annulled. Monk was made commander-in-chief, and this memorable body adjourned, for the last time, on the 16th of March, 1660.

Monk, though still pretending to support the new commonwealth, entered into communication with Charles, advising him what measures to pursue. Partially following his suggestions, the prince forwarded a declaration, with letters to the two houses, the city, the army, and the navy. The parliament, which met on the 25th of April, had been elected in the freest manner, there being no interference on the part of the government. The royalists were in a decided majority. The Republicans, with Lambert at their head, had attempted to get control over the army, but he and his cōadjutors were taken, and committed to the tower on the 24th. The House of Peers also gradually rēassembled, no one opposing them. On the 1st of May, the letter to the House of Commons was delivered, and the bearer received the thanks of parliament, with a handsome reward. Those to the city, army, and navy, were also read to them, and addresses to the king were unanimously voted. The declaration contained promises of amnesty, liberty of conscience, and the settlement of titles and military arrears—all, however,

referable to the decision of future parliaments. These promises were plainly of little value, since every one might see that the next parliament would probably consist of devoted royalists; and Sir Matthew Hale and others urged a final settlement of all points in dispute between the crown and parliament. Through the influence of Monk, however, this was overruled; the house rung with acclamation, and Charles was restored to the throne without the slightest limitation. He was proclaimed on the 8th of May, with great solemnity, and landed on the 25th at Dover, where he was received by Monk, with many of the nobility and gentry. He made a triumphant progress to the capital, attended by a great concourse of people. The city received him with the greatest exultation, and he remarked that it must have been his own fault that he did not come sooner, since all protested that they had longed for his restoration.

The Commonwealth and Protectorate, after an existence of eleven years, thus ended. They had never been popular with the greater portion of people, attached to the ancient forms, incapable of appreciating true liberty, and associating the late government, naturally enough, with military rule and heavy taxation. They had, however, been of great service in destroying slavish reverence for ancient usages, and opening the way for a gradual and more enlightened reform in the constitution.

CHAPTER XX.

CHARLES II.

THE nation, after its relief from the rigid rule of the Puritans, ran wildly into the opposite extreme of gayety and licentiousness. The king rewarded with titles and offices such as had been chiefly instrumental in his restoration. Parliament settled on him an income of one million two hundred thousand pounds, various feudal revenues of an oppressive nature being relinquished in return. The excise on liquors was devoted to defray this new expense. The army, consisting of sixty thousand men, was gradually and peaceably disbanded—only about five thousand being retained. Twenty-

nine of those who had officiated at the trial of Charles I. were arraigned before commissioners, all were found guilty of treason, ten of them were executed, and the remainder were imprisoned for life. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw, were taken from their tombs in Westminster Abbey, ignominiously dragged to Tyburn, and hung on the gallows. Their heads were afterwards fixed on Westminster Hall.

The king was crowned with great solemnity on the 23d of April, 1661, and the new parliament met on the 8th of May. Titles gained by action of the late government had been already annulled, and the new assembly, which was strongly royalist, proceeded at once to restore the Episcopal Church and its ceremonies, by the most stringent measures—enacting, among other things, that all officers of corporations must take the sacrament according to the rites of the established church. Sir Henry Vane, who had received from Charles an assurance of his life, was, at their instance, tried and executed, justifying to the last the late king's sentence and his own political career.

In Scotland, the royal commissioner summoned a parliament, composed of unprincipled wretches, and called, from the continual inebriety of its members, "The Drunken Parliament." A law was passed annulling all previous acts, since 1633, and the country was at once laid open to the mercy of a greedy and revengeful faction. The duke of Argyle and other distinguished covenanters were executed, and it was resolved forcibly to replant Episcopacy.

Charles had been for some time in treaty for marriage with Catharine, the infanta of Portugal. On the 20th of May, 1662, she arrived in England, and was shortly afterwards espoused to him; but fell down in a fit on being compelled to receive as one of her chief attendants Lady Castlemain, the favourite mistress of the king. She was, nevertheless, obliged to submit; and the king, for many years, was ruled by a succession of favourites, who, by their number and beauty, seemed rather the appendages of an oriental seraglio than of an English and Christian court.

The "Act of Uniformity" was strictly enforced, and about two thousand of the clergy forfeited their livings rather than give assent in full to the Book of Common Prayer. A severe statute against all who should attend any religious meetings except those of the church, soon filled the prisons with persecuted dissenters, especially with the Quakers, who had now increased into a considerable sect.

CHARLES II.

AFTER THE ORIGINAL, BY SIR PETER LELY.

"FROM such a school, it might have been expected that a young man who wanted neither abilities nor amiable qualities, would have come forth a great and good king. Charles came forth from that school, with social habits, with polite and engaging manners, and with some talent for lively conversation addicted beyond measure to sensual indulgence, fond of sauntering and of frivolous amusements, incapable of self-denial and of exertion without faith in human virtue or in human attachment, without desire of renown, and without sensibility to reproach."—MACAULAY'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND

In 1664, the Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam, in North America, was claimed as belonging to England by right of discovery, was taken possession of without resistance, and named New York, in honour of the king's brother, James, duke of York. By this, and similar acts of hostility, war was brought on, and parliament voted two millions five hundred thousand pounds to defray the expenses of the contest. In April, 1665, the duke of York, who had effected great improvements in the navy, put to sea, with more than a hundred ships, and for a month rode triumphantly along the coast of Holland. On the 3d of June, Admiral Opdam, with an hundred and thirteen ships, came out, and engaged him off the coast of Suffolk. The action, which was violently contested, resulted in the entire defeat of the Dutch, with the loss of their admiral, eighteen ships, and seven thousand men.

At this time the plague broke out in London, and committed dreadful ravages. During the summer of 1665, the city was half-depopulated by the death and flight of its inhabitants. Immense pits were dug, in which the dead were thrown almost indiscriminately. More than a hundred thousand died of this terrible disease, and the mortality in other places was in proportion to the density of their population. Other misfortunes speedily followed. On the 1st of June, 1666, the duke of Albemarle, with fifty ships, was defeated with great loss, by a superior force of the Dutch, under De Witt and De Ruyter. This disaster was in some measure counterbalanced by a more successful action, and the destruction of a vast number of Dutch merchantmen.

On the 2d of September, a fire broke out in the capital, which, increased by a violent wind, spread rapidly over the city. The king showed unusual energy and humanity; but the people were panic-struck by the suddenness and fury of the conflagration. It raged for several days, and was at last subdued only by blowing up various houses with gunpowder. Two thirds of the city, comprising thirteen thousand houses and eighty-nine churches, had been destroyed; and vast numbers of the people were reduced to extreme distress by the want of shelter. The city, however, was soon rebuilt in a greatly improved manner, and a lofty monument, ascribing this disaster to the Papists, was erected on the spot where the fire commenced.

These misfortunes, and the utter mismanagement of the treasury, so crippled the resources of the country, that, in June, 1667, the Dutch fleet entered the Thames with impunity, sailed up to Upnor,

and burned several ships of war. Their cannon were heard even in London, and men now turned their thoughts to the memory of one whose body had been dragged to Tyburn, and whose head was yet bleaching on the great Hall of their city. Whatever had been his faults of violence or usurpation, Oliver Cromwell had, at least, never suffered a foreign foe to alarm the shores of England. After the coasts had been insulted by De Ruyter for six weeks, peace was concluded.

Lord Clarendon, the high chancellor, and father-in-law of the duke of York, had heretofore been the king's principal adviser. He was bigoted and intolerant, but superior in principle to most of the statesmen of his time. Both qualities had made him many enemies; the king was weary of his lecturing; and, more than all, he would not permit his wife to visit Lady Castlemain. The nation was incensed at the recent misfortunes, and his dismissal from office and banishment from the kingdom were generally satisfactory. In his foreign retirement he completed the able and elegant historical works which, more than his political career, have preserved his reputation.

A new ministry was now formed, consisting of some of the most profligate men in England, and called, from the initials of its members, the "Cabal." The duke of Buckingham, son of the favourite of Charles I., and a man of great ambition, talent, and levity, was the prime favourite of the king, and, though without any ostensible office, was the most influential member of government. Most of these venal officials were soon in the pay of Louis, the French king. Charles and his brother were both secretly Catholics, and in 1669 resolved to remove the obstacles which prevented them from making an open profession of their faith. The aid of Louis was sought, and promised, in event of the change producing an insurrection. Meanwhile, persecutions against the dissenting ministers continued with much rigour, and the odious trade of informers was openly encouraged by parliament. The court viewed these proceedings with satisfaction, hoping assistance from the dissenters in obtaining universal toleration. A secret treaty was concluded with Louis, by which the two nations were to conquer and divide Holland, and to seize on other important possessions—the French king bearing the chief expense; and Charles was to declare himself a Catholic as soon as the measure should appear safe. The Cabal commenced raising supplies for the contest by the most odious means. One million

three hundred thousand pounds were procured, and a vast number of persons ruined by the seizure of such revenues as were pledged for the payment of previous debts. A piratical expedition was also despatched to seize the Smyrna fleet belonging to Holland, with which power the nation, as yet, was in friendly alliance. It was, however, disconcerted by the address of the Dutch government. War was then formally declared (1672)—various petty and frivolous reasons being alleged by the French and English sovereigns, whose true motives, however, were the desire of conquest and the hope of dealing a fatal blow to the Protestant interests in Europe. Other powers entered into this iniquitous confederacy.

Hostilities commenced at sea, the Dutch, under De Ruyter, losing three ships to the duke of York. Louis, with an hundred thousand men, poured into Holland, reduced a great part of it, and advanced within three leagues of Amsterdam. The people, in an ignorant phrensy, murdered the De Witts, their ablest and most patriotic leaders, and put at their head William, the young prince of Orange, (a son of Mary, daughter of Charles I.,) whose genius and courage saved them from the impending ruin. He took the most energetic measures of resistance. The dykes were opened, and half the country was laid under water. It was also resolved by the patriotic Hollanders, if all resistance should be vain, to leave their country for ever, and found a new nation in the East. But fortune assisted their endeavours, and Louis, returning to the pleasures of his capital, left the war to be slowly protracted by his generals.

Parliament met in February, 1673, and voted a large sum to carry on the war. They, however, vehemently attacked a "Declaration of Indulgence" which the king had passed, and resolved, by a large majority, that no one except themselves had power to dispense with the penalties in matters of religion. Charles was indignant, but was compelled to yield, and withdrew the declaration. A "Test Act" was also passed, requiring all persons holding offices of trust to receive the sacrament of the English Church, &c. The duke of York, against whom, with other Catholics, this measure was levelled, laid down all his offices, and others were compelled to follow his example.

A fleet, under Prince Rupert, was despatched against the Dutch; and three actions with De Ruyter, all indecisive, followed. Hostilities at sea continued, and Count Schomberg, attempting to land an army on their coast, was disappointed. The prince of Orange,

assisted by Austria, defended his country with great courage and success. Peace with England was concluded in February, 1674, the questions in dispute being settled by arbitration, and a subsidy being paid by the Dutch. At the same meeting of parliament which settled this question, several of the ministry had been attacked; and Buckingham, deserted by the king, joined Shaftesbury and the opposition. Louis, anxious to keep down the Protestant influence, procured the king to prorogue parliament for fifteen months, paying him five hundred thousand crowns as a consideration. He further privately engaged to pay him a yearly pension of one hundred thousand pounds, on condition that the two nations should be in strict secret alliance—a dishonourable bribe, which made the English monarch almost the vassal of his French ally.

Louis had again entered Flanders at the head of a large army, and the parliament, which met in 1667, strongly urged the king to declare war in favour of his Protestant allies. He tried to obtain a large sum from them, perfidiously pledging his word that it should be applied to the purposes for which it was granted; but they distrusted him, and the French king, by further bribery, prevailed on him to adjourn the parliament. Soon afterwards, the prince of Orange was married to Mary, daughter of the duke of York; and Charles entertained serious desires of permanently settling the long-disputed contest. Louis, although winter was at hand, refused the terms offered to him, and again took the field with his forces, stopping the payment of the pension, but still offering large bribes, in case the king would continue to sustain his interests. Charles, however, informed the parliament, which met in January, 1678, that he had concluded a treaty with the Dutch for their protection, and thus gained large supplies from them; but after some forces had been despatched, distrusting him, they refused to vote further subsidies until satisfied in respect to religious matters. Enraged at this, he immediately prorogued them, and concluded a secret treaty with Louis, engaging, in consideration of four hundred thousand pounds, to withdraw his troops, if Holland would not consent to the treaty of Nimeguen, which was greatly to the advantage of the French monarch. The treaty, with some modifications, was, however, signed, and peace was concluded.

In this year, a most atrocious persecution, under sanction of the law, was perpetrated against the Catholics. Titus Oates, a man of infamous character, pretended to have discovered a great conspiracy

of the Jesuits and others, for the purpose of killing the king, burning the city, and reëstablishing the Romish supremacy. This, with a vast mass of improbable circumstances, often entirely contradictory, he detailed before the council. In the excited feeling against the Catholics, however, all these absurd stories were greedily swallowed by the multitude; and, unluckily for the accused party, papers were taken from Coleman, a dependant of the duke of York, proving the existence of a plot for introducing Romanism, though certainly not that which Oates pretended to reveal; but one much more respectable and formidable, comprising Louis, the king, the duke of York, and other influential names. The public excitement was increased by the mysterious disappearance of Godfrey, the magistrate who had first taken the deposition of Oates. His body was found in a ditch, thrust through with his own sword, leaving it difficult to determine whether he was murdered or had committed suicide. Many persons were taken into arrest upon the perjured evidence of Oates, and parliament, in alarm, voted that "a damnable and hellish plot" existed, and that all papists should be removed from London and its vicinity. A bill was also passed, which, for an hundred and fifty years, excluded Catholics from the House of Lords. The trials of the accused were conducted with great tyranny and injustice, and many persons were executed. Oates, assisted by Bedloe and other perjured informers, was voted large sums as reward for his villany. The queen herself was accused, but Charles refused to abandon her to this merciless Protestant persecution. The city was kept under arms, and in the excited state of the public mind, no one ventured to question the existence of this pretended plot. In January, 1679, parliament was dissolved, after having held their places for eighteen years. Popular agitation still continued so violent, that the duke of York was compelled to depart for the continent.

The new parliament met in March, 1679, and immediately impeached the earl of Danby, the king's principal adviser, who was committed to the tower. He was saved by Charles, however, who had resolved not to consent to his destruction. The king, vainly hoping to conciliate the popular party, admitted, by advice of Sir William Temple, a number of popular members into the council, and even appointed as president Lord Shaftesbury, the leader of the opposition. Nevertheless, a bill was speedily passed by a large majority of the commons, excluding the duke of York, although

the hereditary heir, from the throne. To prevent farther action, Charles immediately prorogued parliament for ten weeks.

Persecution still continued; and a considerable number of Jesuits and other priests were executed—some as accessaries to the pretended plot, and others for exercising their ministerial functions. Through the influence of the king, it was at last abated, and several innocent prisoners were acquitted.

In Scotland, the greatest oppression had prevailed. The people, attached to their own form of worship, and seeing their clergy expelled from their livings, held meetings, called "Conventicles," in the open air. These were forcibly suppressed, and the people, driven to desperation by many acts of cruelty, took to arms. After several actions, they were defeated with great loss at Bothwell Bridge, by the duke of Monmouth, a natural son of the king. Many had already been executed, and though the duke, a man of humane disposition, advocated the cause of the unfortunate covenanters, they were for a long time harassed with the most cruel persecutions.

The king dissolved the parliament, and a new one was elected Finding this assembly constituted much like the former, he prorogued it on the day it met, and prevented any action for more than a year. In January, 1680, the duke of York was recalled to court, and was soon afterwards presented, for recusancy, to the grand jury, by Shaftesbury and other leaders of the opposition. The attempt was defeated by the chief justice, but the duke was compelled to return to Scotland, where he had lately been residing. Parliament met on the day after his departure, and immediately resumed the subject of his exclusion. A perjured witness swore to his plotting against the king's life; other questionable evidence was taken, and the bill of exclusion was passed by a strong majority, and sent up to the House of Lords, where, however, it was rejected by a large vote. The House of Commons had now become so dictatorial and insolent, that another arbitrary parliament was feared; but a private gentleman having resisted their sergeant-at-arms, they discovered that they had exceeded their lawful power, and receded from their pretensions. Enraged at their disappointment in the matter of exclusion, they attacked the king's ministry, and maliciously impeached the venerable Lord Stafford, a Catholic nobleman. He was tried in Westminster Hall, and convicted of being accessary to the plot, on the villanous testimony of Oates and other perjured informers; and shortly after was executed.

In January, 1681, the king, alarmed at the attitude of the house, dissolved it, and summoned another to meet at Oxford in two months—the object being to transfer the government from a turbulent and republican city to a more loyal vicinity. To ensure his independence, he entered into treaty with Louis for a new pension, to last three years. The parliament was mostly composed of its former members; but the king, not being compelled to sue for money, addressed them in a tone of authority, and perceiving them still busy with the exclusion, dissolved them, to the great satisfaction of the country, which was beginning to be weary of their factious and impracticable course. The power of the court now suddenly displayed itself, and Shaftesbury was committed to the tower; but the grand jury, who were of his party, refused to find a bill of indictment against him.

In Scotland, persecution still continued, and numbers, both of men and women, were executed. The duke of York, having held a parliament there, returned to court; and Monmouth, whose ambitious designs on the succession had occasioned his banishment to Holland, also returned. He was received with great joy by the people, among whom he was exceedingly popular; but was arrested during a sort of triumphal procession, which he was making through the kingdom. The court, by intrigue, now obtained the appointment of the sheriffs, and thus ensured juries ready to obey its wishes. In 1683, a frivolous accusation was made against the city of London, and its charter was declared forfeited by the judges, who were the mere tools of court. The whole power of this and many other corporations was thus thrown into the king's hands. A more deadly blow still was to be struck at the opposition. Since the dissolution of parliament, the popular Protestant leaders had been in the habit of holding consultations, and the project of a rising against government was no doubt entertained. Betrayed by one of their associates, several of the leading members of this secret council had been arrested. Lord Essex, despairing of a fair trial, took his own life, and Lord Russell, being tried before a jury, was found guilty of high treason. This amiable and patriotic nobleman had certainly brought himself within the compass of the law; but his execution, which the king obstinately refused to avert, was an impolitic and unnecessary act of cruelty. Algernon Sidney, an ardent republican of the same party, was next tried before the brutal Jeffreys, chief justice of the king's bench, and convicted in a manner utterly opposed to

law and evidence. Like Russell, he died with great constancy and heroism. The duke of Monmouth, who was also fully implicated, was, nevertheless, partially reconciled to the king, his father. The opposition now seemed annihilated; for a scheme to murder the king (the celebrated "Rye-house Plot") had been discovered, and the people, confounding this with the charge alleged against the condemned, every where supported the court.

The Princess Anne, daughter of the duke of York, was married to Prince George, brother of the king of Denmark; and from this time the influence of the duke, owing to the indolence of Charles, was predominant, and he had the principal direction of affairs. On the 2d of February, 1685, the king was seized with a fit of apoplexy, and on the 6th expired, having previously received absolution in private from a priest of the Catholic faith, to which he had always secretly inclined.

This king presented a striking picture of amiable manners and strong private affections, joined to almost all the qualities which can disgrace a monarch. He was deceitful, mean, rapacious, ungrateful, and utterly careless of the national welfare and honour. The license and immorality of his court exceeded all that had ever been witnessed in England. Nevertheless, the people, charmed by his gayety and affability, were always fond of him, and lamented his death much more than they would probably have done that of a better king.

CHAPTER XXI.

JAMES II.

JAMES, immediately on his accession, conciliated the people and the church, by a most express and public declaration that the Establishment should not be disturbed. The ministers of the late king were continued in office. He made, however, no secret either of his own religion or that of his brother, and was at some pains to publish the secret views and conversion of the latter. He also gave much uneasiness to zealous Protestants by attending the

Catholic worship in the most public and conspicuous manner; and further still, by ordering the discharge of all recusants. He had also a secret Catholic council, and at his coronation took the oaths with a mental reservation. Parliament, which, on account of the surrender of charters to his brother, was composed almost entirely of loyal subjects, voted him, unanimously, a revenue equal to that of the late king; yet, while declaring their implicit confidence in his declaration, manifestly felt uneasy on the subject of religion.

Meanwhile, however, a formidable plot had been concerted among the Protestant exiles, headed by Monmouth and Argyle. The latter landed in Scotland on the 2d of May, 1685, but was only able to raise two thousand five hundred men. This small force soon dispersed, and the duke, attempting to escape in disguise, was taken, and on the 30th executed at Edinburgh. Monmouth, detained by various circumstances, did not arrive until the 11th of June, when he landed at Lyme, in Dorsetshire, and put forth a proclamation, styling James "a usurper," and accusing him of the burning of London, and of other crimes. Large numbers flocked to his standard, and he marched with four thousand men to Taunton, proclaiming himself king. He received some further marks of popular favour, but learning of the defeat of Argyle, and finding himself joined by none of the gentry, began to despair of success. He finally, on the 1st of July, encountered the royal forces under the earl of Feversham, at a place called Sedgemoor. The ill-armed peasants, of which his army was composed, fought bravely, but were defeated with a loss of five hundred killed and fifteen hundred prisoners. The duke himself, with other leaders, attempting to escape, was taken.

The hatred of his uncle, exasperated by the late attempt, was implacable; and on the 14th of July, this gallant and popular nobleman was beheaded on Tower-hill, amid the lamentations of the people, by whom he had always been beloved, despite his weakness and ambition. He perished in the thirty-sixth year of his age.

The most barbarous vengeance was taken upon the deluded and ignorant insurgents. The infamous Jeffreys made a circuit through the country, trying the accused, and several hundred were executed by his orders, after a species of mock trial. One aged matron was beheaded, and another burned alive, for affording succour to the fugitives. The air was infected from the number of victims whose mangled remains were exposed by the road-side. Great numbers were sold into slavery, and others were given to the Maids of Honour,

who sold their liberty at exhorbitant rates. The king instigated and approved all these murderous proceedings, and Jeffreys is said to have declared, on his death-bed, that his blood-thirsty master was unsatisfied even with these extraordinary and sweeping executions. The chief instigators of the insurrection, except Monmouth, saved their lives by bribery and other means.

James now felt secure and highly elated. He addressed the parliament in a tone of authority, and finding them not completely submissive, prorogued them, to act no more during his reign. He kept up the army from his own revenue, and resolved to fill the principal commands with Catholics. To annul the act requiring their compliance with the rites of the church, he appointed judges pliant to his wishes, and gained from these a decision that his dispensation (an ancient, but disputed branch of the royal prerogative) was sufficient to render the required conformance unnecessary. He gave similar dispensations to certain Catholic officers in the University of Oxford. These measures alarmed the Protestants, who saw his intention of rëestablishing Romanism, and prepared the way for his overthrow.

Father Petre, the king's confessor, a zealous and fanatical priest, approved and stimulated the almost insane projects of the king. By especial request of James, a papal nuncio was appointed to the court of England. The pontiff, however, and his emissary, more prudent and moderate than their royal partisan, endeavoured vainly to restrain his rash proceedings. Convents were openly established in London; the Jesuits opened a school; and the earnest Protestants were scandalized at seeing friars ranging through the city in the long-proscribed habit of their order. To overawe opposition, the army, fifteen thousand in number, lay encamped on Hounslow Heath, mass being publicly performed, and great efforts made to convert the soldiery. These were mostly unsuccessful, and it is remarkable that in an age of such shameless venality and dishonest ambition, so few could be found to barter their conscience or their prejudices for court favour. Even Kirke, a brutal officer, refused the king's solicitations, alleging that he had promised the emperor of Morocco to turn Mahometan, if he changed at all. The few men of influence who complied, were promoted to high stations, and both the cabinet and privy council were partly composed of Catholics. Great numbers of Protestants holding offices under government and in the army, were dismissed, or resigned their commissions, the vacancies

being filled with Romanists. A declaration was issued, suspending the penal laws and the requirements of tests; and was, at first, received with much joy and loyalty by the dissenters. Their antipathy to the Catholics, however, proved in the end so much stronger than their desire for toleration, that they vehemently opposed the king's measures, and supported the bishops in their resistance. Sermons were even preached against the very act by which alone the speakers were permitted to occupy their pulpits.

Great excitement was caused by the king's persistance in attempting to convert the universities into Catholic institutions, and by his oppressively forcing his own creatures upon them for officers. The people had now become generally alarmed upon the subject of religion, and turned their thoughts for assistance to the prince of Orange, the acknowledged champion of the Protestant cause. Several noblemen opened a secret correspondence with him, and an armed resistance was contemplated. In this state of popular feeling, the opposition of the Episcopal clergy determined the fate of James. In May, 1688, he required that his declaration of general toleration should be read from all the pulpits. The bishops and others of the clergy remonstrated; but the king was firm. He accused them of rebellious practices, and persisted in his demand. Out of a body of ten thousand clergymen, not more than two hundred complied.

James, in spite of the advice of even his Catholic counsellors, resolved to prosecute the bishops for the remonstrance which they had signed; and, amid the lamentations of the people, seven of them were committed to the tower. At the trial, in spite of every exertion on the part of the crown, they were acquitted, and the popular cause gained a vast accession of strength and confidence. The king, who had been grievously annoyed by the confirmed Protestantism of his daughters, was somewhat consoled by the birth of a son and heir to the throne; but such was the prejudice against his cause, and all that seemed to strengthen it, that hardly any of the Protestants would admit the reality of the birth, though attested by the strongest evidence. It was maintained, and generally believed, that a supposititious child had been palmed upon the people for the sake of securing a Catholic heir to the throne.

The occurrence of this event decided the leaders of opposition; and an invitation, signed by a number of the nobility and clergy, was sent to the prince, entreating him to come to their assistance. A great part of Europe was already in alliance, under the direction

of this politic and able sovereign, to check the ambition of France; and he was enabled to make large preparations for the invasion of England, under pretence of preparing to defend Holland. Louis, who saw the impending danger, hastened to offer his aid and alliance to James, which that infatuated prince refused. He soon, however, perceived his error, for the designs of William became unmistakeable; and immediately commenced the work of concession, neglecting no means to conciliate his offended clergy and people. A large fleet was also kept on the coast, and an army of forty thousand men was enlisted. But these acts of prudence and vigilance came too late.

The prince, supported by the States of Holland, had in readiness a fleet of sixty men-of-war, and seven hundred transports. A force of fifteen thousand men was also ready to embark, commanded by Schomberg (William's former opponent and present ally) and by other able continental officers; and a number of noble English exiles and others were engaged in the undertaking. The sailing of this armament was, however, delayed for more than a month by furious gales from the west, and it did not leave the shores of Holland until the 1st of November (1688). The king, meanwhile, had done every thing to prop his sinking cause. He had proved, by a most formal investigation, the reality of the birth of his son; had dismissed Sunderland, his unscrupulous adviser, from office, and removed Father Petre from the council.

On the 5th of November, William, with his forces, arrived safely at Torbay, in Devon, and landing, marched to Exeter. He was at first joined by very few, the people being overawed by the late executions; and had serious thoughts of returning. At length, Sir Edward Seymour setting the example, numbers of the nobility and gentry came to his standard. His partisans also began to raise men in the different counties. James beheld himself deserted by one adherent after another, and his daughter Anne herself fled from him. "God help me!" he exclaimed, in tears; "my very children have forsaken me." Disaffection spread rapidly through the kingdom, and the most important places were soon occupied by the adherents of the prince. The queen and the infant prince of Wales had been secretly despatched to France, and James, after an ineffectual attempt at negotiation, resolved to follow them. He privately posted to Feversham, flinging the great seal into the river on his way; but, after having embarked, was detained, with his companions, on suspi-

cion that they were Jesuits. His rank being ascertained, a guard was appointed for his protection, and he returned to London, where he was received with great demonstrations of loyalty, and resumed the functions of the royal authority. William, however, whose ambitious designs had been grievously disappointed by his return, compelled him, under pretext of securing his safety, to leave the capital, and take up his residence at Rochester. The aspirant to his throne, while omitting no means of alarming him, disposed the guards around his house in such a way that he could easily escape. His friends remonstrated; yet this deluded prince (perhaps terrified by the fate of his father) actually fell into the snare, and precipitately retreated to France. This circumstance terminated his brief and odious reign, which, in the short space of three years, had proved him bigoted, faithless, cruel, and totally unfit to govern.

The prince, proceeding to London, met with a most cordial reception, and summoned the peers to consult upon the state of the nation. He received from them the entire charge of the administration until January 22d, 1689, when a convention was elected to meet at the capital. This body, on its meeting, immediately resolved that James, by his abuse of the law, his connection with popery, and his withdrawal from the kingdom, had abdicated the throne, and that the same was vacant. The convention then settled upon the prince and his wife a joint-title to the crown, under the names of William III. and Mary II., the real authority, however, being vested in the former. In default of heirs, the succession was settled on Anne, and in default of her heirs, on those of the prince of Orange.

This event terminated the long struggle, in which, from the time of John, the crown and people had been almost continually engaged. When the unfortunate and ill-advised house of Stuart acceded to the throne, the power of the sovereign was almost without restraint. Increasing civilization, and their want of tact and ability, had kept up an almost continued contest for popular rights, ending in the final expulsion of the direct heirs, and the firm establishment of nearly all the present principles of the English constitution.

CHAPTER XXII.

WILLIAM III., AND MARY II.

THE new reign commenced on the third of February, 1689. All Protestants were confirmed in their appointments, and the officers of state were chosen from the ranks of both the Whigs and Tories—names which though with very different significations, have been ever since adopted by the leading parties of Great Britain. By act of parliament, any Catholic, or any person marrying a Catholic, was excluded from the throne. An "Act of Toleration," through the king's influence, exempted dissenters from certain penalties, and the Catholics, though not mentioned, shared the benefit. Louis openly espoused the cause of James, and on the 7th of May, war was declared against France.

In Scotland, a convention had been summoned immediately after the flight of James, and the Whigs being in a majority, it was declared that he had forfeited the throne. William and Mary were proclaimed in his stead. His adherents, foiled in the convention, appealed to force, and Viscount Dundee (infamous, under the name of Claverhouse, for his cruelty to the Covenanters,) hastened to the Highlands, and raised a considerable force. General Mackay, who with a superior force was sent against him, was defeated, with a loss of fifteen hundred men. Dundee, however, received a wound, of which he died the next day, and the clans, deprived of a leader, laid down their arms. This decided the cause in Scotland; and Episcopacy was soon supplanted by Presbytery.

In Ireland, all the power was in the hands of the Catholics, and Lord Tyrconnel, the governor, declared for James. The dethroned monarch himself, furnished with supplies by Louis, landed with twelve hundred of his own subjects, at Kinsale, on the 12th of March. He entered Dublin, amid the acclamations of the Catholics, and took command of the army. Enniskillen and Londonderry alone offered any resistance, the latter being defended by the Protestants with desperate courage. After a close siege of some months, it was relieved from the sea, and the besiegers retired, after losing eight or nine thousand men. They were equally unsuccessful at Enniskillen. An Irish parliament was summoned, the "Act of Settlement" was

repealed, and every measure taken to transfer the property into the hands of the Catholics. The Protestant worship was suppressed, and tithes were made payable to the priests.

In August, the duke of Schomberg landed with ten thousand men, and was at first successful; but after losing one-half his men by disease, was compelled to go into winter-quarters. An English squadron, sent to intercept the French supplies, was defeated, and forced to retreat. In 1690 Schomberg, with a reinforcement of seven thousand men, commenced the campaign successfully. In June, William landed in person, and found himself at the head of thirty-six thousand men. James, with a somewhat inferior force, encountered him at the river Boyne on the 1st of July. Crossing the river in three divisons, the English engaged their opponents. The latter were compelled to retreat, with a loss of fifteen hundred men, and James himself, perceiving the probable event, fled in haste to Dublin, embarked in a small vessel, and landed in France. William, after reaching Dublin, and proclaiming an amnesty to the common people, attempted to storm Limerick, but was repulsed with great loss, and embarked for England, leaving the war in the hands of his generals. The combined English and Dutch fleets, under Lord Torrington, were, on the 20th June, defeated by the French.

Displeased with the conduct of parliament, he had dissolved it, and summoned a new one to meet in 1690. The Tories were in the majority, and with great difficulty a bill had been passed, declaring the king and queen "rightful and lawful" sovereigns of Great Britain, and ratifying the acts of the convention, as originally valid. Through the influence of the crown, it passed, and the Tories ceased to question the rights of the new incumbents. A bill of indemnity and other important measures were carried through. On his return from Ireland, William obtained a grant of four millions, and, with his continental allies, undertook to prosecute vigorously the war against France.

It seems certain that some of the leading politicians in England were, at this time, in correspondence with James; and the earl of Marlborough, who had recently commanded successfully against him in Ireland, entered into a plot for his restoration. During the summer of 1691, William, accompanied, among others, by the earl, carried on the continental war, and, on his return in October, learned that Ireland was completely reduced to submission. Reasonable terms were granted to the defeated party.

In February, 1692, a most barbarous massacre was committed in the dead of night upon the tribe of Macdonalds at Glencoe, who had been adherents of the expelled dynasty. Misrepresentations had been made to the king; but his readiness to sign an order for the indiscriminate slaughter of a defenceless people, will always attach to his reputation the stain of cold-blooded cruelty.

He returned to Holland in the spring, and great preparations for an invasion of England, were made both by James and his English adherents. Louis had furnished him with troops, which, with the exiles from his former dominions, amounted to fifteen or twenty thousand men. But the fleet which was to have transported this force to the shores of England, was defeated with great loss by that of the English and Dutch, and the attempt was, for the present, abandoned.

During the continental campaigns of 1692 and 1693, the French were almost uniformly successful; they took a number of strongholds, and, intercepting the great Smyrna fleet, captured and destroyed property to the amount of a million sterling. In the following year, however, the advantage was upon the side of the allies. The machinations of the Stuart party still continued—Marlborough, Godolphin, and other influential politicians, still holding forth hopes of a restoration. Owing to the treachery of these men, an expedition against Brest was defeated with much loss.

On the 21st of December, 1694, the queen died in the thirty-third year of her age. Her duties as a wife and daughter had for a number of years been in constant collision; and it is not too much to say, that she sacrificed the latter to the former more than justice demanded. Almost the only point on which sympathy can be felt for James, is that of the undutiful conduct of his children—whose demeanour toward their discrowned and exiled father has been compared to that of the daughters of King Lear.

In the campaign of 1695, William, to the great joy of the allies, took the strong city of Namur, after a siege of seven weeks. In the new parliament, which met this year, an act was passed, regulating trials for treason upon more humane and liberal principles. The coinage, which was in a miserably debased state, was also restored to its purity, under the superintendance of Sir Isaac Newton.

Plots for the assassination of William had already been detected, and in February, 1696, a most nefarious scheme for this purpose was discovered, originated by the Jacobites, and probably sanctioned

by James himself. Upon trial, seven persons were found guilty, and executed. Sir John Fenwick, who had contrived to suppress the evidence against him, was also beheaded, on the odious authority of an attainder. An expedition of invasion, which was to have accompanied this plot, failed, on its detection. This was the last attempt of the partisans of James, and in September, 1697, the treaty of Ryswick restored peace to the nations so long engaged in hostilities. Louis resigned the most of his conquests, and acknowledged William king, in spite of the protests and manifestoes of James—the latter, on account of his faith, or bigotry, rejecting a proposal that the succession should be settled on his son, if he might receive a Protestant education.

The parliament of 1699, jealous of the king and the foreign troops, reduced the army to seven thousand men, and expelled the Dutch guards and French Huguenots, who had fought so bravely for their liberties. William was so deeply affronted at this measure that he contemplated resigning the government, and returning to Holland. The next year, a most cruel measure, punishing priests and disinheriting Catholics, was passed; but owing to the better feeling of the nation at large, remained inoperative.

The Princess Anne being now without children, the parliament of 1701 passed an act regulating the succession. By this "Act of Settlement," the crown, after her death, was secured to the Princess Sophia of Hanover, and her heirs. This lady was a Protestant, and niece to Charles I. Other important and liberal provisions were made concerning the rights of the crown, the judiciary, and other important matters. Great indignation was excited by the conduct of Louis, who, in pursuance of a pledge made to James, on his death-bed, had publicly recognised his son as king of England. Stringent measures were passed against all supporters of this claim, and ninety thousand men were voted for the two services.

The king did not long enjoy the freshly-awakened confidence and support of the nation. His health had been gradually failing, and in February, 1702, he met with an accident which eventually proved fatal. His horse stumbled, and broke his collar-bone. No fears of the result were at first entertained; but a fever set in, and on the 7th of March he expired, in the fifty-second year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign.

This prince was undoubtedly the most able monarch of his time. He was skilful in war, politic, and tolerant, though, as in the case

of Glencoe, he had little compunction at shedding blood. The coldness and formality of his manners prevented him from ever becoming personally popular.

CHAPTER XXIII.

ANNE.

The queen at her accession was in her thirty-eighth year. She was a firm Protestant, and strongly inclined to the Tory party, which she preferred in forming her ministry. The abilities of Marlborough, despite his well-known treachery, procured him the command of the forces, and the chief charge of the foreign interests of the nation. On the 15th of May, according to the previous agreement, war was declared against France by England, Holland, and Germany. Marlborough, who commanded the allied army, effected little during this campaign, being hampered by the vexatious conduct of the Dutch deputies accompanying the army. An expedition of great force, planned by William, was now sent against Cadiz, which was regarded as a portion of the French dominions. It retired, however, without effecting any thing except the taking of plunder; but falling in, on the passage home, with the great treasure-fleet of the Spaniards, captured and destroyed property to the amount of eight millions of dollars. The contest entitled the "War of Succession," in which England was now engaged for eight years, was founded on an alliance made by William and other continental powers to repress the ambition of Louis, who, by intrigue, had succeeded in placing his grandson Philip on the throne of Spain.

The allies, impeded by various causes, effected little in 1703 and the early part of 1704, the genius of Marlborough being still restrained by the pertinacious deputies. In August, however, assisted by Prince Eugene, he engaged the French and Bavarian army of fifty-six thousand men, under Marshal Tallard and others, at Blenheim, with a slightly inferior force. After a desperate contest, the enemy was entirely defeated, with a loss of forty thousand men. Other successes followed this remarkable victory, and the

duke received splendid testimonials of gratitude from the queen and parliament. In the same year, the strong fortress of Gibraltar was taken by an English force under Sir George Rooke.

In 1705, little was effected in Flanders, the principal seat of war, but an expedition to Spain, headed by Lord Peterborough and the Archduke Charles, (the rival claimant to the Spanish crown,) was very successful, and several provinces espoused the cause of the latter. In 1706, Marlborough, with an army of about sixty thousand men, encountered that of the French, of equal force, under Marshal Villeroy, near Ramillies. The latter again sustained a terrible defeat, with a loss of thirteen thousand men. A large part of the disputed territory surrendered. Negotiations for peace being ineffectual, Marlborough again took the field in 1707, but with little result of importance. In Spain, the allies were entirely routed by Philip, and the revolted provinces were again subdued. In 1708, a fleet fitted out by Louis, and commanded by the son of James II., (called in England the Pretender,) sailed for Scotland; but owing to storms and the presence of an English squadron, returned unsuccessful. In the same summer, Marlborough besieged and took the towns of Lisle and Ghent. Louis was now desirous of peace; but the allies insisted on such unreasonable terms, that he renewed the war. On the 11th of September, 1709, occurred the hardest-fought battle of the whole war. Marlborough and Eugene, with ninety thousand men, had invested the town of Mons, and Marshal Villars, with an equal force, hastened to its relief. The two armies encountered near Malplaquet. The French lost fourteen thousand men, and the allies twenty thousand; but the advantage remained with the latter. After another ineffectual attempt at negotiation, in 1710, further hostilities ensued; and in Spain, Charles, with twenty-three thousand men, defeated his rival, Philip, and compelled him to quit the capital. The successes of the duke of Vendome, however, restored the failing fortunes of Philip. The English and German allies were captured or discomfited, and the conquest of Spain became evidently hopeless.

Meanwhile, a most important political event had occurred at home. The necessity of a closer union between the kingdoms of England and Scotland had been deeply felt ever since the accession of James I., with whom it had been a favourite object. This feeling was strongly increased by an independent and rather dictatorial resolution of the Scottish parliament, called the "Act of Security"—a measure which called forth a still more violent response from the

English assembly. By adroit management, however, the measure was entertained by both, and the queen was empowered to appoint commissioners from both kingdoms, for the purpose of a settlement. These met at Westminster, in 1706, and, after some dispute, agreed upon the particulars. Of these, the most important were, the succession of the house of Hanover and the distribution of representation and taxation—a share in each, very feebly proportioned to her population, being, in consideration of her poverty, allotted to Scotland. When these terms were made known in that country, a storm of public indignation arose. Some just, and many ridiculous objections were urged, and two-thirds of the nation were vehemently opposed to the scheme. Nevertheless, when their parliament met on the 13th of October, 1706, the court party was sufficiently powerful to carry the measure—a result due, partly to the necessity of the case, and partly to the "Equivalent," a sum of three hundred and ninety-eight thousand pounds, paid under pretext of recompense for the loss of customs and excise, but in reality as a fund for bribery. On the 1st of May, 1707, the two nations were incorporated under one government, by the name of Great Britain. On signing the deed which destroyed the separate existence of his kingdom, the Scottish commissioner coolly remarked, laying down his pen, "And there is the end of an auld sang."

During all the time of the war, a fierce struggle had been maintained between the Whig and Tory parties, involving, however, few principles of national importance. In this selfish warfare for political power, the queen's private feelings and attachments determined the result. She had, for many years, been warmly attached to the duchess of Marlborough, whose husband had thus been loaded with wealth and honours. This ambitious and imperious woman was supplanted in the queen's affections by Mrs. Masham, one of her waiting-women, of whose influence the Tories, directed by Harley, took advantage. The government, however, was principally Whig in 1710, but was overthrown by a ridiculous incident. Doctor Sacheverell, a fanatical high Tory preacher, had in a sermon reasserted all the exploded doctrines of passive obedience, &c., and had vehemently attacked the administration. Godolphin, the treasurer, had the folly to bring him to trial; the whole Tory party espoused his cause; and the nation generally, considering him a martyr, were enthusiastic in his favour. A lenient sentence was regarded as a victory by the Tories, and Harley, sure of the temper

of the nation, and aided by his confederate, Mrs. Masham, prevailed on the queen to dismiss her ministry. Godolphin, who had brought about the union, was suddenly deprived of his office, and Marlborough, whose genius had so long sustained the honour of the English arms, was treated with great indignity. At the entreaty of the allies and of the Whig party, however, he still consented to retain his command; and in 1711 made another successful campaign, distinguished by extraordinary military science. But peace had been resolved on by the new administration, and secret negotiations had been commenced with France. The proposed terms, being made public, excited strong popular indignation; and Harley (now Lord Oxford, high-treasurer,) determined on the destruction of Marlborough, regarding his success and popularity as the chief obstacle. The queen dismissed him from all his employments, and charges of peculation and dishonesty were preferred against him before the houses of parliament. He was, indeed, of a grasping and avaricious disposition, and had received large sums for his own benefit from the allies and others, but only in accordance with prescriptive custom. His defence was so forcible, that the ministry thought it unwise to proceed to extremities.

The army of the English and their allies in the Netherlands, under Prince Eugene, amounted to an hundred and twenty thousand men. The French, with a smaller force, weakened and dispirited, could hardly have made any effectual resistance; and it seems probable that they might have marched into the enemies' country, and dictated terms of peace under the walls of Paris. Nevertheless, Oxford, who is supposed to have been secretly in the interest of the Stuarts, determined on peace; and, on the 14th of April, 1713, the peace of Utrecht was concluded, to the rage and despair of the continental powers. Nothing of any importance had been attained by this long and disastrous contest. Philip retained the throne of Spain, and certain minor advantages were granted to England. The cause of the allies on the continent was, for the most part, deserted and betrayed. During this treaty, which overthrew all the efforts of his former administration, died Lord Godolphin—a minister of the highest talents, and so disinterested, in that corrupt age, that even Swift, the inveterate abuser of his government, admitted his freedom from venality. Marlborough, his intimate political friend, went to reside abroad.

An attempt, supported by the Whigs, was made at this time to

dissolve the union, and failed only by a majority of four. St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, a man of splendid talents and dissolute habits, in 1714 contrived, through the influence of Mrs. Masham, to expel from office his colleague, Oxford. His expectation of being prime minister was, however, disappointed by the sudden illness of the queen, who, for some time, had been failing. She was induced by those around her to fill the vacant post with the duke of Shrewsbury, and in a short time expired, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign. The intrigues of the Stuarts and their adherents had been persevering, and seemed likely to be crowned with success; but they were disconcerted by the superior address of their opponents; and the elector of Hanover, son of the Princess Sophia, was proclaimed king under the title of George I.

Anne was the last of the Stuart family who sat upon the throne of Great Britain. Her capacities were small, and she was almost entirely governed by her personal favourites. She was always popular, however, and received from her people the universal title of "good Queen Anne."

During this and the preceding reign, the constitution had received many improvements. The limits of the prerogative were settled, and the judiciary, empowered to retain their offices during good conduct, became really independent. A national bank was established, and paper money was introduced. The more questionable advantages of a standing army and a national debt were also attained. Science and literature flourished eminently, and were patronized by intelligent ministers. Sir Isaac Newton was master of the Mint, Locke a commissioner, and Addison secretary of state. Swift and other men of literary eminence were influential, and well rewarded.

CHAPTER XXIV.

GEORGE I. AND GEORGE II.

THE new monarch, fifty-four years of age, was a foreigner, entirely ignorant of the language, laws, and manners of his adopted kingdom. He was a man of prudence and courage, but rather low in his tastes, and unintellectual. He landed in England on the 18th of September, 1714, and selected a new ministry, almost entirely Whig. Marlborough, who had been a strenuous supporter of his accession, was again made commander-in-chief. A new parliament, strongly Whig, met in March, 1715, and immediately impeached Oxford, Bolingbroke, and other members of the late government. The first was committed to the tower, and others fled to the continent, and entered the service of the Pretender, James III. At the end of two years, Oxford was released. Bolingbroke in 1723 procured a reversal of his attainder, returned to England, and again took an active part in political affairs.

The pretender and his partisans had been making secret preparations; and on the 6th of September, 1715, the earl of Mar raised his standard in the Highlands, and assembled a force of ten thousand men. A similar movement was made in the north of England, but was easily suppressed by the forces of government. On the 13th of November, the duke of Argyle, with four thousand men, engaged Mar, who had more than twice that number, at Sheriff Muir. Five hundred were slain on each side, and both claimed the victory. On the 22d of December, James landed in person, but perceiving the hopelessness of his cause, returned to France, whither he was followed by most of the insurgent chiefs. The forces were disbanded. Only twenty-nine persons were executed in consequence of this attempt.

In 1716, a bill was passed, changing the term of the duration of parliament, from three to seven years. Government at this time, as well as long afterwards, was exceedingly corrupt. The king's German mistresses and favourites were continually impatient for estates and titles, and possessed sufficient influence to determine the fate of measures and of ministries. A bill, however, which George (to

gratify his hatred to the prince of Wales, by injuring the prerogative) would willingly have signed, for limiting the number of peers, was defeated.

In 1720, a most extraordinary delusion seized upon the people. The South Sea Company, an unsuccessful establishment of 1711, made a large financial contract with government, and, being in the hands of unprincipled men, used every effort to inspire the public with a belief in its unbounded resources. To such an extent did the infatuation reach, (founded on improbable stories of gold mines and enormous profits in trade,) that the stock went up to a thousand per cent., and all classes hastened to invest their property in the treacherous concern. Many, by speculating in the stock, made fortunes; but the bubble soon burst, and thousands were ruined. The king's mistresses and several members of government were deeply concerned in this iniquitous transaction.

Lord Townshend and Robert Walpole, two men of high ability, who had lost their places in the government for a time, were enabled, by the odium which this transaction cast on the ministry, to regain a high position—the first becoming secretary, and the latter first lord of the treasury. In 1722, died the duke of Marlborough, the most able commander, and one of the most sagacious statesmen of his age. He possessed many excellent and amiable traits of character, though his public life was stained by treachery, and his private life by covetousness. The remainder of the reign of George I. was chequered by few incidents worth recording. An unsuccessful plot of the Stuart faction was detected; one conspirator was executed, and Bishop Atterbury, with other persons of high rank, was committed to prison. In Ireland, a great excitement, fomented by Dean Swift, was occasioned by the attempted issue of a debased copper coin, entitled, from the name of the patentee, "Wood's half-pence." So great was the clamour, that government was compelled to retract from the measure.

During this reign, the foreign relations of the kingdom were entirely changed, a close alliance existing with France and other powers, and a state of jealousy or hostility toward Spain and the empire. Sir George Bying, in 1718, destroyed a Spanish fleet of twenty-seven sail of the line, off Sicily. In 1725, Admiral Hosier made an unsuccessful expedition to Spanish America, and perished, with great numbers of his men, from disorders incident to the climate. The king died in his yearly journey to Hanover, on the 11th

CHARLES EDWARD (CALLED THE PRETENDER)

He was the grandson of James II., the exiled king of England, and in his younger days a prince of great enterprise and chivalrous courage. In 1745, with only seven attendants, he landed on the coast of Scotland, resolved on the perilous attempt to recover the throne of his ancestors After a brief career of surprising success and invasion, he was compelled to retreat, and his little army, at the battle of Culloden, was cut to pieces by the English, under the duke of Cumberland He escaped, amid the greatest perils and sufferings, to France, and passed the remainder of his life in obscurity and lamentable sensual indulgences

of June, 1727. He was in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and in the thirteenth of a reign distinguished by few events of national interest.

His son George II. ascended the throne at the age of forty-four. Though more familiar with English customs, his tastes were as German as those of his father; and both seem to have been more solicitous for the welfare of their petty electorate of Hanover, than for that of the splendid empire over which they were called to reign. Walpole (now Sir Robert) continued for nearly fifteen years to hold the chief control of government, his colleague, Townsend, resigning in 1730. During all this time there continued a fierce opposition, composed of Tories and disaffected Whigs. Among his most formidable adversaries were Pulteney and Bolingbroke, who now began to make a new figure in the political world. The chief object of the opposition, as is too generally the case, was to get the government, with its enormous and profitable patronage, into their own hands; but Walpole, who had reduced the art of bribery to a perfect system, was always enabled to command majorities in the house. His administration was, however, able and tolerably enlightened; but his favourite scheme of excise and customs, very similar to that now adopted, (the warehousing and bonding system,) was finally defeated in 1733, by the clamour of the ignorant and interested. The "Septennial Act" was also warmly attacked.

In 1737 the queen, a firm friend of Walpole, and a woman of excellent character, died. She possessed far greater talents for government than the king himself, who trusted almost implicitly to her advice, and during his frequent visits to Hanover, always left the control of affairs in her hands.

For many years England, guided by her skilful and pacific minister, had been at peace; but in 1739 the nation, irritated by the insulting demeanour of Spain in regard to her colonies, compelled him to declare war. Admiral Vernon, with only six ships, took and destroyed the town of Porto Bello; but failed in a more important expedition against Carthagena. In 1740, Anson sailed upon his celebrated voyage. After losing all his vessels but one, and doing much injury to the Spanish on the western coast of South America, he stretched into the Pacific, and, having captured a galleon of immense value, returned by the Cape of Good Hope, after an absence of four years, during which, like Drake, he had circumnavigated the globe. The general ill-success of this war, though he had strongly opposed it, was thrown upon Walpole; and strenuous efforts were

made to remove him from office. A parliament newly elected contained a majority of his opponents; and in February, 1742, he resigned his office, and was created Lord Orford. He survived the loss of his power but three years. The peaceful and able administration of this firm and consistent Whig minister presents less lustre than that of others, from the corrupt means by which he acquired and perpetuated his power.

Of the leading men who opposed or succeeded him in the administration, the most distinguished was William Pitt, already conspicuous for his talents. Henry Fox, the rival of Pitt, was also a man of great ability and eloquence. Murray (Lord Mansfield), Conway, Townsend, and others had already began to play a conspicuous part. The ministry, however, was now chiefly directed by the duke of Newcastle, Lord Carteret (afterwards Granville), and some others.

By virtue of a treaty with the empress of Austria, (now at war with Frederick the Great,) a subsidy was granted, and a force of sixteen thousand men was despatched to her assistance. The king of England, eager to acquire martial renown, joined it in person in 1743, and, at the age of sixty, distinguished himself at the battle of Dettingen. France next entered the contest, and the English, with their allies, commanded by the duke of Cumberland, the king's son, were defeated by Marshal Saxe, at Fontenoy, with a loss of ten thousand men.

It was now resolved by the court of France to embarrass the British, by assisting the long-neglected house of Stuart; and in August, 1745, Charles Edward, son of the pretender, landing with a few adherents, was joined by many of the Highland clans. He moved rapidly southward, entered Edinburgh, and took up his abode in Holyrood House, the ancient palace of his ancestors. At Preston Pans he completely defeated General Cope, who had been sent against him, and then, with a force of only five thousand men, marched in the most daring manner into England. Taking Carlisle and Manchester, he advanced as far as Derby; but finding himself joined by few, was compelled to retreat. He gained one more victory in January, 1746, but on the 16th of April, with four thousand men, was defeated at Culloden, by the duke of Cumberland, with a greatly superior force. The brutal victor ordered that no quarter should be given; and the most atrocious acts of cruelty and military licentiousness followed. The unfortunate chevalier, after undergoing great hardships, and experiencing many romantic adventures,

escaped into France. Nearly two hundred prisoners, some of them of high rank, were executed for their share in this attempt.

Granville, who had principally controlled affairs since the fall of Walpole, was, in 1744, supplanted by Pelham and his brother the duke of Newcastle, a weak, but intriguing man. Pitt also received an important office. In 1748, after an immense effusion of blood and treasure, a general peace was signed, leaving all parties much the same as they were at the commencement of the contest. Anson, Warren, and Hawke had fully sustained the reputation of the English navy.

In 1751 Frederick, prince of Wales, who had always been at bitter enmity with his father, died, and his son George became heir-apparent to the three kingdoms. But a few years of peace had elapsed, when a fresh war with France was brought on by the conflicting claims of the two nations to extensive tracts in North America.

In 1754 arms were taken up, and young Major Washington was compelled to surrender to a superior force of French and Indians. The events which followed belong properly to American history, and may be very briefly detailed. General Braddock, with a considerable force, was surprised, defeated, and slain; and in 1756 war was formally declared. In this year also commenced the famous "Seven Years' War," in which all the powers of Central Europe were engaged—Frederick the Great, supported by England, having forcibly seized the Austrian province of Silesia.

Great fears of the invasion of England were entertained, and a body of Hessian and other foreign troops were imported for the defence of the country. The first event of importance to England was the failure of Admiral Byng, from a too strict adherence to naval tactics, to capture the French fleet. The king and ministry basely yielded to the popular clamour against him, and this brave and patriotic man was judicially murdered by a court martial. At his execution, he displayed the highest calmness and courage, effectually refuting the charge of cowardice which his enemies had endeavoured to fasten on him.

After a curious vacillation of power, during which Pitt, Newcastle, Fox, and others in turn controlled the ministry for a brief period, the former became the actual minister, (Newcastle retaining the title,) and, by his boldness and genius, rescued the nation from the depth of despondency. Misfortune, however, continued for a time. An

expedition against Rochfort utterly failed, and the duke of Cumberland, with an army of forty thousand Hessians and Hanoverians, was forced to capitulate, and abandon the electorate to the French. In America, Montcalm had greatly extended the strength and territory of the latter.

In 1758 the arms of England were more successful; and in the following year, great successes awaited them. Boscawen, in the Mediterranean, and Hawke, in the Channel, gained decided naval victories. In America several forts had been seized, and the city of Quebec was taken by storm by the gallant General Wolfe, who, with his rival, Montcalm, expired on the field of battle. The battle of Minden, on the continent, in which the English gained much distinction, occurred about the same time. On the 25th of October, 1760, the king expired of apoplexy, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-first of his reign. His grandson, George III., succeeded him.

During these two reigns, the monarch being a foreigner, and compelled to govern according to the will of majorities, the Whigs had retained almost the entire control of government. The most shameless venality had prevailed, and all branches of municipal government were indifferently administered. The police were inefficient, and crime, consequently, was of frequent occurrence. Compared with the present day, morals and manners were in a very uncultivated state.

CHAPTER XXV.

GEORGE III.

THE young king, at the age of twenty-two, came to the throne under most favourable circumstances. The country was prosperous and united, and his parliament was generous and loyal. The war was still continued, though the king, whose predilections were for the Tory party, was anxious for peace, that he might dismiss Pitt, the principal leader of the Whigs. France had suffered greatly especially in her commerce and colonies, and was anxious for the

cessation of hostilities. Negotiation, however, was fruitless. Pitt, finding that he could not obtain the consent of his colleagues to a war with Spain, resigned his office, and retired on a pension of three thousand pounds.

In 1761 the king was married to Charlotte, a German princess, and shortly afterwards war was declared against Spain, which had evinced hostile intentions. The duke of Newcastle, who had managed to keep in office for more than thirty years, now resigned, and Lord Bute, a Scottish nobleman, became prime minister. In March, 1762, a powerful expedition was despatched against Cuba, and, after a protracted and difficult contest, took the wealthy city of Havana, with shipping and treasure to the amount of three millions of pounds. By the taking of Manilla and two rich galleons, an equal amount of plunder was obtained. France lost a number of her possessions in the West Indies.

The expense of carrying on these wars had, however, been enormous. France was desirous of peace, and, in spite of the opposition of Pitt and his faction, a treaty (the Peace of Fontainbleau) was signed at Paris in February, 1763. By this agreement, England retained Canada and many of her conquests in the West Indies and elsewhere. Others she restored. Her national debt had been increased seventy-five millions of pounds.

Lord Bute, who was unpopular, and personally disliked by the king, retired from office, and Grenville, with his colleagues, came into power. Great annoyance was occasioned to the king and ministry by the factious conduct of a demagogue, called Wilkes, who assailed them with great talent and personality in a paper called the North Briton. He was generally supported by the people, who, in spite of (or perhaps on account of) the prosecution of government, adhered to him faithfully. He was, however, outlawed, and compelled to leave the kingdom. Returning in 1768, his sentence was reversed, and he was repeatedly elected to parliament, and as often expelled by the majority. He finally became lord mayor of London. To Grenville succeeded the marquis of Rockingham, in 1765, and to him Mr. Pitt, who, after organizing a ministry which he could not control, resigned office for ever, and retired in 1768, with the title of Lord Chatham. The duke of Grafton, whom he left in office, and who had been bitterly assailed by the celebrated Junius, gave place in 1770 to Lord North, whose administration proved one of the most eventful in English history.

For several years previous, a storm had been brewing upon the western shores of the Atlantic. The prudent Walpole had refused to lay a tax upon the North American colonies; but in 1764 the king himself compelled Grenville to introduce a bill asserting the expediency of stamp duties on the colonies. Strong remonstrances were made by the colonists; but in 1765 the bill passed, and was met by the most determined resistance. It was repealed the following year, but in 1767 duties were imposed on various articles. These, except the tax on tea, were taken off in 1770. In 1773 the ships of the East India Company, carrying a supply of the obnoxious article, were not permitted to land it; and a portion was forcibly thrown into the sea in Boston harbour, by a party of citizens disguised as Indians. Retaliatory proceedings were immediately instituted, and the provinces made zealous and patriotic preparations for an armed resistance.

The long and desperate struggle which followed, belongs properly to American history, and may be briefly stated. A general alliance for mutual defence was made among the numerous colonies on the Atlantic. By the result of a new election for parliament, it was obviously the determination of the English people to reduce their revolted provinces by force, the celebrated Burke vainly attempting a reconciliation. The first blood was shed at the little town of Lexington, in April, 1775; and Boston, where the English troops were stationed under General Gage, was soon surrounded by twenty thousand of the American militia, eager to avenge the death of their countrymen. The battle of Bunker's Hill, where the English, in attempting to drive a small body of troops from their intrenchments, lost a thousand men, was the first action of importance. George Washington, already distinguished in the French war, was intrusted with the command of the provincial forces—a task which he fulfilled with wonderful courage, skill and perseverance. He blockaded Boston till the spring of 1776, (a daring, but unsuccessful attempt on Canada being made meanwhile,) and finally compelled the English garrison to evacuate it.

The provincial forces were defeated with great loss on Long Island, by General Howe, and the city of New York, surrendering, was held by the British during the remainder of the war. On the 4th of July, 1776, a general congress declared the independence of the colonies, and all prospect of an adjustment became hopeless. In 1777 the Americans were defeated at Brandywine, but retrieved

this disaster by the capture of General Burgoyne, and his entire army, of nearly six thousand men, at Saratoga.

This success decided the court of France, which acknowledged the independence of the states, and supplied them with a fleet and other assistance, thus recommencing hostilities with England; and in 1779, Spain also joined the hostile alliance. In America, the war was conducted with alternate fortune. The brave provincials, though suffering extremely from the want of food, clothing, and shelter, still fought desperately, and, on the whole, maintained their ground.

In 1780, Sir George Rodney defeated a Spanish fleet; a French one, which he also engaged, escaping through the incapacity of his officers. He also relieved Gibraltar, which was besieged. Clinton and Cornwallis were highly successful in the southern states. In the North, at this time, occurred the celebrated treason of Arnold, and the execution of the unfortunate Major André, as a spy.

The Whig party had been generally in favour of conciliatory measures; but the nation was mostly desirous of carrying on the war. The idea of a dismemberment of the empire was indeed generally regarded with great aversion; and in 1778, Lord Chatham, who had been a vehement advocate for conciliation, came to the house, though suffering severely from disease, and spoke in the most impassioned manner against a motion for acknowledging the independence of the states. Having finished his speech, this great statesman fell backwards in convulsions, and four days afterwards expired, in the seventieth year of his age.

About the same time, a terrible riot, caused by excitement against the Catholics, and instigated by Lord George Gordon, prevailed for some time in London. A mob, composed of fifty thousand fanatical Protestants, destroyed the Catholic chapels and dwelling houses, burned or threw open the prisons, and plundered the residences of Lord Mansfield and other obnoxious persons. It was finally suppressed by the military, many of the rioters being killed.

The blockade of Gibraltar still continued, and it was repeatedly attacked and defended with the most desperate courage; but neither bombardment nor famine could subdue the resolution of the garrison. The Dutch had joined in the hostile alliance against England, but were defeated at sea, and lost the island of St. Eustathius, with much valuable property. The war in the southern states was still protracted; but on the 19th of October, 1781, Lord Cornwallis, with his whole army, was compelled to surrender at Yorktown, to a com-

bined force of Americans and French. This event effectually terminated the war.

The administration of North, unpopular on account of this and other misfortunes, grew weaker and weaker; it was compelled to sustain the united attacks of Pitt, (son of the earl of Chatham,) of Fox, and Sheridan, the most brilliant orators of the day, and finally, in March, 1782, the cabinet was dissolved, and the offices filled with the most distinguished members of the opposition.

In the West Indies, Rodney had completely defeated the French admiral, De Grasse, capturing or destroying most of his fleet. Gibraltar was besieged and bombarded by more than an hundred thousand men; but by its impregnable position and the gallantry of its defenders, maintained a successful resistance. Negotiations had, however, been for some time carried on, and, in 1783, a general peace was concluded, by which the independence of the United States was acknowledged, and the conquests of England, France, and Spain, were mutually restored. Another hundred millions of pounds had been added to the national debt.

By the most singular coalition of North and Fox, the ministry, headed by Lord Shelburne, was overthrown, and the former opponents entered office together. This union was, however, too unnatural to last long, and the scheme of Mr. Fox, to effect a change in the affairs of India, having failed to command a majority, they retired in their turn. Pitt, at the age of twenty-four, now formed a new ministry, of which he was the head; and, with a single interval, continued to hold the post of prime minister during the remainder of his life. The opposition, henceforth, was led by Fox.

The new minister was, however, in a decided minority himself; but, with wonderful tact and perseverance, allowed the opposition to become unpopular by defeating his measures. Then, dissolving parliament, he secured an immense majority at the next election, great numbers of the Whigs having lost their seats in the House of Commons. His power, however, was nearly overthrown in 1778, by the king's mental derangement. George, prince of Wales, and a friend of the opposition leaders, was about to be appointed prince-regent, though with very limited powers; but his father's sudden recovery, just before the passage of the bill, confirmed the ministry in their position, and disappointed the Whigs, who were daily expecting to step into office.

During the incidents which have been narrated, remarkable events

CHARGE OF THE ENNISKILLEN (IRISH) DRAGOONS AT THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO

THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

ARTHUR WELLESLEY, Duke of Wellington, was born in the county of Meath, in Ireland, on the first of May, 1769. His professional education was commenced at a very early period, and he entered the army as an ensign at the age of eighteen. The high military reputation which he acquired in Indian warfare, was sustained and widely extended by his remarkable achievements in the Peninsular war, and, less deservedly, by the victory of Waterloo, which British panegyrists are accustomed to attribute entirely to his talents.

Since the general peace, he has always taken an active part in political affairs, and has generally been found at the head, or in the ranks, of the ultra tories. Very recently, at the advanced age of eighty-one, the settlement of the British Cabinet was again placed in his hands; and his advice to the Queen, of recalling her moderate whig minister, Lord John Russell, was adopted.

had transpired in India, already a most important member of the British empire. Elizabeth, in 1600, had first granted a charter to a company of merchants trading in the East. During that and the succeeding reigns, they established factories at Surat, Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay. In 1698, a rival company had obtained a charter, but in 1702, the two were consolidated into one, under the title of "The United East India Company."

The hostilities with France had extended to this distant region, and Dupleix, the French governor of Pondicherry, had made himself formidable by an alliance with a native prince. The English, threatened with expulsion from the country, took the part of a rival to the latter, and a French and Anglo-Indian war was commenced. In 1751, the affairs of the English were retrieved by the courage and genius of Robert Clive, who repeatedly defeated the allied French and natives, and finally destroyed the power of the former. In 1756 Calcutta was taken by Surajah Dowlah, a powerful native prince, jealous of the English power. A horrible scene followed this success. An hundred and forty-six of his unfortunate captives were shut up in a small dungeon, called the "Black Hole," where all, except twenty-three, perished before morning, from the want of air and water. Clive, who was then at Madras, marched against the savage nabob, and compelled him to make peace and restitution. Soon after, finding him allied with the French, this enterprising general, with only three thousand men, attacked him at Plassey, where he was stationed with fifty thousand native troops, defeated and dethroned him. His successor, Meer Jaffier, bestowed great treasures on Clive and the company. In 1760, this successful adventurer returned to England, at the age of thirty-five, with an income of forty thousand pounds. Such abuses and rapacity, however, prevailed in his absence, that four years afterwards he was obliged to return, with the office of governor-general, to attempt a reform. In effecting this, he made so many enemies among the dishonest servants of the company, that an effort, though unsuccessful, was made to censure him in parliament. After having raised the company to great wealth and power, he died at the age of forty-nine, by his own hand.

In 1773, the notorious Warren Hastings was appointed governor, and by his career of rapacity and tyranny, earned himself an unenviable memory. With great ability, he joined treachery and avarice; and so used his influence and his forces among the native powers,

as to extort great sums of money, at the expense of every principle of honour and humanity. After a tyrannical reign of twelve years, he returned from India, laden with riches, and was soon after impeached for his various enormities by the House of Commons. On his trial before the Peers, in February, 1788, the eloquence of Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, displayed his crimes in the most glowing colours; his guilt was palpable; yet, by the artifices of his counsel and the influence of powerful friends, the case was protracted for seven years, and a judgment was finally given in his favour.

The French Revolution, fraught with events of such importance to mankind, both for good and evil, broke out in 1789; and England, with other European nations, was soon involved in the alarming progress of affairs. To the Whig party, as to liberal men all over the world, it seemed at first the harbinger of a better era. The Tories regarded it with horror and alarm; and Burke, heretofore one of the greatest ornaments and supports of the opposition, openly quarrelled with Fox, Sheridan, and other friends, and joined the ministerial party. An agitation of Parliamentary Reform, perhaps urged forward by the example of France, was opposed and suppressed by Pitt, himself formerly the author of a similar movement. His policy toward France had been one of neutrality; but a dispute was brought about by the interference of England in behalf of the Dutch. On the 21st of January, 1793, Louis, the king of France, was executed; and, twelve days afterwards, the Convention declared war against England. The Whigs now separated, a part joining the ministry upon the war question; and the remainder, headed by Fox, subsiding into a powerless opposition and minority.

Treaties of alliance against France were made with most of the continental powers, but owing to mismanagement, and to the courage and patriotism of the French, were of little avail. Pitt, though of great talents as an orator, had no genius for war, and wasted vast sums in fruitless expeditions and in subsidizing greedy allies. His forces, after suffering great hardships, were driven from Holland by the French; and Toulon, which had been occupied by Lord Hood, was captured by the genius of Napoleon Bonaparte, then a young officer of artillery. The navy was more successful, and Lords Howe and Bridport each defeated a squadron of the enemy.

An attempt at negotiation, in 1796, was unsuccessful; and the financial pressure became so great, that the Bank of England was compelled to suspend payments. Great quantities of paper money

were issued, prices rose, and a period of great apparent prosperity ensued. Much alarm was excited in the same year by a general mutiny in the navy. The sailors, whose health and comforts were shamefully neglected, rose in the Channel fleet and that of the Nore; imprisoned or sent ashore their officers, and kept possession of the vessels till parliament complied with their demands. Parker and other ringleaders at the Nore were, however, executed. The year was, nevertheless, distinguished by the naval victory of Jarvis, off Cape St. Vincent, over the Spanish fleet, and that of Duncan, off Camperdown, over the Dutch.

Meanwhile, great disturbances had been gradually increasing in Ireland. That unfortunate country was oppressed in every possible way. It had but a shadow of political power; the greatest abuses prevailed; and the miserable peasantry were the mere serfs of the landholders. It is remarkable that, although the Catholics had by far the greatest cause of complaint, the Protestants made the first movement towards reform, and secured an independent parliament. A spirit of republicanism, stimulated by the example of America and France, had grown up, and a formidable association of Protestant dissenters, called the "United Irishmen," with which the Catholic party soon formed an alliance, was organized in 1791.

In Ulster, however, a mutual hatred subsisted between the opposite sects; and the Protestants, who had the superiority, formed themselves into a society called "Orangemen," (from William III.,) and barbarously expelled their rivals from the country. The new association, like any other which appeals to selfishness and bigotry, met with success, and spread rapidly over the kingdom. In 1796, a formidable armament, which, under command of General Hoche, sailed from France to assist the Irish republicans, was dispersed by storms, and retired, unable to effect a landing.

A general rising against the English government had been meditated for some time. The ministry, though aware of this intention, were unable to get sufficient evidence against the leaders, and in 1797 commenced a system of the most frightful atrocity. Under pretence of searching for arms, &c., they let loose upon the people a licentious and brutal soldiery, with instructions to use such tyranny as should rouse the people into a premature and less formidable rebellion. These horrible orders were fully carried out, and the miserable peasantry were, in all directions, murdered, tortured, and driven from their homes. The chiefs of the conspiracy, Lord

Edward Fitzgerald and a number of others, were detected and arrested. The persecutions which followed were of such an outrageous nature, that the object of government was at last attained, and the people, by a continuance of savage oppression, were forced into insurrection. The peasants were at first defeated, but in May, 1798, with fifteen thousand men, took the town of Wexford. A desperate attack, which they made upon New Ross, was repulsed with the loss of a thousand of their number; during which, two hundred Protestant prisoners were brutally massacred by certain ruffians. A division of the English army was defeated near Gorey, but the insurgents, twenty-seven thousand in number, were repulsed in Wicklow by a small force under General Needham, and their leader, Father Murphy, was killed by a cannon-ball. The English forces being finally concentrated, the insurgent army was defeated and dispersed at Vinegar-hill, their chief station, and war, in effect, thus ended. During this contest the Irish Catholics had murdered several hundred of their Protestant prisoners. But a far greater amount of butchery—accompanied, too, by studied and deliberate tortures—lies at the door of their foreign and Protestant conquerors.

General Humbert, with about a thousand French, landed at Connaught in August, 1798, and was joined by a portion of the peasantry. Being surrounded by Lord Cornwallis, with a large army, he was compelled to surrender, and the insurrection was thus finally crushed, after the loss of fifty thousand lives, and an immense destruction of property.

The government now began to feel the necessity of union or extermination; and Lord Castlereagh, to whom the affair was committed, succeeded, by the most open and shameless bribery, in passing a bill for the former through the Irish parliament, and in March, 1800, the national existence of Ireland was effectually terminated.

The British arms had, in the interval, gained some brilliant successes at sea. Nelson, in 1798, attacked the French squadron which had lately conveyed Napoleon and his forces to Egypt, and gained a complete victory in the Bay of Aboukir. An expedition to Holland, however, in the following year, commanded by the duke of York, met with a most disgraceful failure. In 1801, Mr. Pitt, unable to redeem his pledges to the Catholics, went out of office, and his place was taken by Mr. Addington, who was, however, supposed to be only a puppet, moved by the retired minister. In the same

year, Nelson, after a terrible battle at Copenhagen, defeated the Danes, who had resisted the long-disputed "right of search" claimed by England. In March, 1802, General Abercrombie, in Egypt, defeated a portion of the French army, and compelled the remainder to surrender on honourable terms. Napoleon, having utterly routed the Austrians, made great preparations the same year for the invasion of England. Equal enthusiasm was manifested for its defence; but in March, a treaty of peace was signed at Amiens, by which England restored a portion of her conquests. Her national debt had again been terribly augmented.

The treacherous and perfidious conduct of the English ministry, in refusing to comply with the terms of the treaty, rēawakened hostilities. By an equal act of perfidy, anticipating war, they issued secret orders—to seize all colonies of the French, and laid an embargo on their vessels. Napoleon retaliated by imprisoning all British subjects within his territories, and war was rēcommenced. To meet the crisis, Pitt again assumed the premiership, in May, 1804, just as Napoleon was proclaimed emperor at Paris. A brilliant victory soon strengthened the new administration. Admiral Nelson, who had long been in search of the enemy, finally, on the 12th of October, 1805, encountered the combined French and Spanish fleets, under Villeneuve, off Cape Trafalgar. With twenty-seven sail of the line, he completely defeated thirty-three. Nineteen of them were taken, but the British admiral, having won the most signal naval victory on record, died from the effect of a wound which he received in the action.

In January of the following year, expired Pitt himself, worn out with care, anxiety, and excess. This celebrated statesman died in his forty-seventh year, after a life chiefly spent in office, and laboriously devoted to the service of his country. His genius and integrity no one can question; but from an error common to the entire party which he represented, Great Britain was plunged into ruinous wars, and a terribly increased burden was laid upon posterity.

The king, in spite of his antipathy to Mr. Fox, was compelled to appoint a new ministry, of which that gentleman was the chief. During his brief period of power, this great man exerted himself strenuously to procure a peace, and to secure the abolition of the African slave-trade. Death, however, closed his brilliant and patriotic career, and in a few months after his elevation, he reposed by the side of his great rival and predecessor in Westminster Abbey.

His favourite and philanthropic measure (against the slave-trade) was carried out by his party; but, having in 1807 introduced a bill for the relief of the Catholics, the ministry were dismissed from office, and their places supplied from the opposite party. Castlereagh, Canning, Percival, and Eldon were the most prominent members of the new administration, which, owing to the prejudice against Catholicism, commanded a great majority.

Napoleon, whose influence, after the conquest of Prussia, extended over all continental Europe, had declared the British islands to be in a state of blockade, and succeeded partially in preventing inter course. The ministry, fearing lest he should seize upon the naval resources of Denmark, sent a piratical expedition against that power, which was unsuspicious of hostilities, took possession of her fleet, and captured a great number of her merchant vessels. This atrocious act excited the indignation of every civilized nation.

In 1808 an expedition of considerable force was despatched to Portugal, to operate against the French. Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards Lord Wellington), with sixteen thousand troops, defeated Junot, the French commander, at Vimiero, and, by agreement, the French evacuated Portugal. On the 16th of January, 1809, Sir John Moore, with fourteen thousand men, repelled a furious attack of Marshal Soult, with a superior force, at Corunna, but lost his life in the engagement. Operations were much hampered by the folly of the ministry, which undertook to plan campaigns, and thus disconcerted the schemes of their ablest commanders. On the 27th of July, 1810, a terrible battle was fought at Talavera, between Wellington and Victor, the French army being fifty thousand in number, and the British and Spaniards about the same. Seven thousand men were slain on each side without any very decisive result.

On the same day, an expedition of forty thousand men sailed for Holland, but met with no success, the greater number perishing on the pestilential island of Walcheren.

In the same year, the king experienced another attack of insanity, from which he never recovered. His son George was made regent, and, deserting his old friends the Whigs, retained the Tory ministry.

Hostile operations were still carried on with great vigour in Spain and Portugal, and at Busaco, Albuera, and other fields of battle, both parties wasted their forces in indecisive engagements. At length, in 1812, the attention of Napoleon being engrossed by approaching hostilities with Russia, Wellington commenced an active

campaign. He took by storm the strong cities of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz, defeated Marmont, who lost twelve thousand men, and entered Madrid itself. He was, however, soon compelled to retire into Portugal. Being largely reinforced and supplied, he was at last placed in the supreme command over the allied forces, and in 1813, defeating Joseph Buonaparte at Vittoria, expelled the French from the Peninsula. The fall of Napoleon, overpowered by the northern allies, and his first abdication in 1814, soon followed, the British army at the same time entering France from the south.

In 1812 the American government, unable to obtain redress for the impressment of its seamen, and for other grievances, had declared war. In that year, an American army, under General Hull, attempting the invasion of Canada, was compelled, through the incapacity of their leader, to surrender to an inferior force. At sea and on the lakes the Americans gained brilliant successes, and proved the naval character of Britain to be less invincible than had been generally supposed. In 1813 the advantage in naval conflicts still continued with America, the British meeting more success on land. In the following year a large force, under General Ross, sailed up the Chesapeake, defeated the militia called out to oppose them, and destroyed all the public buildings in the city of Washington. Toward the close of the year, the British arms experienced a signal reverse. General Pakenham, with a large force, making an attack on the city of New Orleans, was utterly defeated by General Jackson, the American commander. Exposed to a terrible fire from the American intrenchments, the invading force was compelled to retreat, leaving on the field their leader, and more than two thousand of the Peninsular veterans, who had lately been transferred to this service. Peace was concluded the same year.

In 1815 occurred the return of Napoleon, his brief and brilliant second career, and the final extinguishment of his power on the field of Waterloo. After his fall, he sought the hospitality of England, and found it in the island-prison of St. Helena, where he survived for a few miserable years.

A general peace, in which the allied powers partitioned Europe at their will, succeeded. The condition of England, exhausted by the long contest, was miserable, and frequent riots and local insurrections were caused by the sufferings of the poorer classes.

The king, whom blindness, insanity, and age, had long deprived of all that renders life desirable, expired on the 29th of January,

1820, in the eighty-second year of his age, after a reign of nearly sixty years, the longest in the annals of the nation. The temperate and domestic private character of this monarch secured him the respect and affection of his subjects, although his incapacity, obstinacy, and bigotry caused them incalculable injuries.

During this long and troubled reign, which seemed to connect two different ages of the world, the most important changes had occurred in almost every political relation of England. Her territorial possessions had greatly increased, and in particular, almost the whole of India had been brought under subjection to her government.

CHAPTER XXVI.

GEORGE IV., WILLIAM IV., AND VICTORIA.

On the death of his father, the prince-regent, under the title of George IV., ascended the throne. His queen, Caroline of Brunswick, from whom he had long been separated, now returned from Italy, and claimed her title and conjugal rights. To gratify the king's aversion and evade her claims, it was resolved to bring her to trial on a charge of conjugal infidelity; and evidence of the basest character was accordingly sought out. So great, however, was her popularity, and so questionable the proof alleged against her, that the ministry were compelled, in the midst of the trial, to withdraw their charges; a measure which was regarded by the people as a triumphal acquittal. She died soon afterwards, overcome with grief and mortification.

Lord Liverpool, who had for some time been premier, was succeeded in 1827 by George Canning, the brilliant and accomplished orator, who, however, expired, after holding office only four months. In 1828, the duke of Wellington filled the same responsible office. The odious test act was repealed; and in 1829 a bill for the emancipation of the Catholics was introduced by the ministry, who saw no other means of preserving order in Ireland. Supported by Wellington and Sir Robert Peel, it was passed by a majority of an hundred and five, in spite of the strenuous opposition of the more bigoted or interested adherents of the church.

QUEEN VICTORIA

George IV. expired on the 24th of June, 1830, in the sixty-eighth year of his age and the tenth of his reign. This prince, though highly popular in his youth, and always distinguished by the urbanity of his manners, has left an unenviable reputation for selfishness, sensuality, and meanness in his private life, and for want of faithfulness and magnanimity in his public career.

His brother, the duke of Clarence, succeeded him under the title of William IV. He had been long in the navy, and was rather distinguished by a sailor-like frankness and openness of disposition, than by any decided talent for government. The second French Revolution, which broke out just as he ascended the throne, produced a strong desire in England for the extension of popular rights. The Whigs, supported by the general feeling, came into office, and Earl Grey was placed at the head of the new ministry. The bill which he introduced for the reform of parliament, met with the most furious opposition from the Tory party. It provided for the representation of many large towns and other places which had heretofore been excluded, and abolished a great number of "rotten boroughs," which had been exclusively under the control of the aristocracy. By this measure, which was passed in 1832, the voice of the people, though still only partially heard, gained a great accession of strength and authority.

During the brief reign of William IV. other most important measures were carried: the emancipation of slaves in the colonies, the amendment of the poor laws, and similar acts of a liberal nature. He died on the 20th of June, 1837, and was succeeded by his niece, Victoria, daughter of the duke of Kent, (third son of George III.,) and the present sovereign of Great Britain.

With the principal events of her reign hitherto, most persons are sufficiently familiar. Great Britain, though generally preserving a pacific attitude towards the continental nations of Europe, has carried on an extensive and protracted warfare in the East. The hostilities with the warlike nations west of India, in which at times her forces suffered materially, and those with China, in which that ancient empire was compelled to submit to the most onerous and humiliating conditions of peace, have been the chief events of great importance in her foreign relations. Though anxious, as ever, to preserve the so-called "balance of power" among the European states, her government has, in a great measure, relinquished the spirit of dictation and intermeddling which so often has involved her

in hostilities, and thrown such heavy burdens on posterity. Her present policy appears to be one of conciliation and non-interference, a result due partly to the more enlightened spirit of the present age, and partly to the obstacles which embarrassed finance, and the fear of popular outbreak, would present to the success of any important or protracted contest. The domestic policy of England has also undergone the most material modifications. The duties upon grain and other articles of general consumption have been repealed or essentially lightened, under the untiring and patriotic exertions of the League. Other relaxations in the more obnoxious features of her system have also taken place, the leaders of the Conservative party seeing the absolute necessity of a concession to popular feeling. A very material extension of the right of suffrage is proposed, and will doubtless, at no distant day, be carried into effect.

The few last months have witnessed with amazement a strange revival of the Anti-Catholic excitement. An apostolical letter of the Pope of Rome, constituting a cardinal and other ecclesiastical dignitaries within the queen's dominions, has awakened a perfect storm of indignation among the zealous Protestants and church party. The most exciting meetings have been held, and addresses to the queen, couched in the strongest language, have been voted. In compliance with this strange spirit of alarm and displeasure, a bill has been introduced into parliament, which, though materially curtailed of its most oppressive features, nevertheless provides a considerable penalty for the assumption of ecclesiastical titles conferred by the Pope and derived from English localities.

Great Britain presents, at the present moment, the singular spectacle of a nation controlling the most extensive dominions, displaying the highest magnificence and the most lavish expenditure, yet deeply involved in debt, and perhaps liable to suffer great convulsions from any trifling cause which might increase the pressure upon her suffering operatives. That gradual amelioration, in preference to sudden, disastrous, and perhaps fruitless revolution, may be her fate, is the hope and belief of the most wise and benevolent politicians. No American, who regards at its due value, the glorious heritage of heroism, genius, and national spirit which this country has inherited from England, can wish otherwise than that this splendid nationality, purified from its corruptions, and expanded by perfect freedom, may yet emerge into more real greatness and more universal prosperity than it has ever yet experienced.

THE RULERS OF ENGLAND.

The Romans,	B. C. 55	TO A.D.	420
The Britons and their Saxon invaders,	A. D. 420	"	584
The Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy,	584	"	827

ANGLO-SAXON KINGS.

Egbert,	827	"	836
Ethelwulf, son of Egbert,	836	"	856
Ethelbald, son of Ethelwulf,	858	"	860
Ethelbert, son of Ethelwulf,	860	"	866
Ethered, son of Ethelwulf,	866	"	871
Alfred the Great, son of Ethelwulf,	871	"	901
Edward I., son of Alfred,	901	"	925
Athelstan, son of Edward I.,	925	"	940
Edmund I., son of Edward I.,	940	"	946
Edred, son of Edward I.,	946	"	955
Edwy (the Fair), son of Edmund I.,	955	"	959
Edgar, son of Edmund I.,	959	"	975
Edward II. (the Martyr), son of Edgar,	975	"	978
Ethelred, son of Edgar,	978	"	1016
Edward II. (Ironside), son of Ethelred,	1016	"	1017

DANISH KINGS.

Canute, an Invader,	1017	"	1035
Harold (Harefoot), son of Canute,	1035	"	1040
Hardacnute, son of Canute,	1040	"	1042

ANGLO-SAXON KINGS.

Edward III. (the Confessor), son of Ethelred,	1042	"	1066
Harold II., son of Godwin, earl of Wessex,	1066		

ANGLO-NORMAN KINGS.

William I. (the Conqueror), son of Robert duke of Normandy,	1066	"	1087
William II. (Rufus) son of William I.,	1087	"	1100
Henry I. (Beauclerc), son of William I.,	1100	"	1135
Stephen, grandson of William I. by his daughter Adela,	1135	"	1154

THE PLANTAGENETS.

Henry II., grandson of Henry I., by his daughter Matilda,	1154	"	1189
Richard I. (Cœur de Lion), son of Henry II.,	1189	"	1199
John (Lackland) son of Henry II.,	1199	"	1216

Henry III., son of John,	FROM 1216	TO	1272
Edward I. (Longshanks), son of Henry III.,	1272	"	1307
Edward II., son of Edward I.,	1307	"	1327
Edward III., son of Edward II.,	1327	"	1377
Richard II., grandson of Edward III., by Edward the Black Prince,	1377	"	1399

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV., grandson of Edward III., by John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, his fourth son,	1399	"	1413
Henry V., son of Henry IV.,	1413	"	1422
Henry VI., son of Henry V.,	1422	"	1461

HOUSE OF YORK.

Edward IV., the fifth in descent from Lionel duke of Clarence, third son of Edward III.,	1461	"	1483
Edward V., son of Edward IV.,	1483		
Richard III., brother of Edward IV.,	1483	"	1485

HOUSE OF TUDOR.

Henry VII., a descendant of John of Gaunt, fourth son of Edward III.,	1485	"	1509
Henry VIII., son of Henry VII.,	1509	"	1547
Edward VI., son of Henry VIII.,	1547	"	1553
Mary, daughter of Henry VIII.,	1553	"	1558
Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII.,	1558	"	1603

HOUSE OF STUART.

James I. (VI. of Scotland), great-grandson of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII.,	1603	"	1625
Charles I., son of James I.,	1625	"	1649
THE COMMONWEALTH,	1649	"	1653
THE PROTECTORATE, Oliver Cromwell,	1653	"	1658
THE PROTECTORATE, Richard Cromwell,	1658	"	1659
INTERREGNUM,	1659	"	1660
Charles II., son of Charles I.,	1660	"	1685
James II., son of Charles I.,	1685	"	1688

HOUSE OF ORANGE AND STUART.

JOINT REIGN OF { William III., son of Mary, daughter of Charles I., Mary II., daughter of James II., }	1688	"	1694
William III.	1694	"	1702
Anne, daughter of James II.,	1702	"	1714

HOUSE OF HANOVER.

George I., son of Sophia of Hanover, niece of Charles I.,	1714	"	1727
George II., son of George I.,	1727	"	1760
George III., grandson of George II.,	1760	"	1820
George IV., son of George III.,	1820	"	1830
William IV., son of George III.,	1830	"	1837
Victoria, grand-daughter of George III.,	1837	"	——

AUSTRALIA.

CHAPTER I.

DISCOVERY AND COLONIZATION OF THE COUNTRY.—THE ENGLISH PENAL SETTLEMENTS.

AMONG the numerous colonies of Great Britain, none, of late years, has excited a greater degree of public interest than that upon the eastern coast of the vast island, or rather continent, now generally known as Australia. A settlement commenced for the sole purpose of draining the parent-country of a worse than useless population, and proving, after the lapse of a few years of privation and disorder, an unlimited field for pastoral and agricultural enterprise, has lately received a new stimulus from the discovery of the gold regions in its vicinity. From every quarter of the globe ships are constantly departing, freighted with adventurers eager to share in the rich treasures of the soil.

The directness of the result, as compared with the tedious waiting, the life-long toil, the fierce competition and rivalry, and the constant uncertainty so generally attendant upon the acquisition of wealth by the ordinary means, conspire to impart a strong fascination to the search for native gold.

Although the history of Spain has taught us how little a nation is permanently benefitted by a sudden influx of wealth in the precious metals, and although we may look with some concern upon the settlers of a new country neglecting necessary labour for that whose return is, abstractly, almost valueless, yet we can but rejoice at any cause that tends to draw off the supernumerary population of the crowded countries of the Old World, and to open a new field for energy and enterprise.

About the beginning of the seventeenth century various Spanish and Portuguese vessels are said to have made the Australian coast,

and a few years later the Dutch explored a great extent of its western sea-board, giving to the country the name of New-Holland. In the year 1787 the British government determined to establish a colony of convicted criminals at Botany Bay, a spot on the eastern coast of the island, examined and named by Captain Cook some seventeen years previous. Seven hundred and fifty-seven convicts, of whom one hundred and ninety-two were women, were accordingly shipped on board a fleet, consisting of the Sirius, the Supply, and a number of transports and store-ships. After a prosperous voyage, the colonists reached Botany Bay on the 20th of January, 1788. The neighbouring harbour of Port Jackson was selected as the more eligible site on account of the superior fertility of the country, and the abundance of fresh water to be procured there.

As might be expected from the materials of which the colony was at first almost entirely composed, it was long before quiet and orderly industry was established. The lawless horde of convicts could only be restrained by great severity on the part of the established authorities, and in their intercourse with the native inhabitants they were guilty of many enormities. In a society where crime could be considered as affixing no stain of ignominy, where the majority consisted of outcasts accustomed to disregard all law, what else could be expected? it is only to be wondered at that law could be as efficiently enforced as it appears to have been, and that the community at large should so soon have put on, at least the semblance of civilization and self-respect.

The immigration of a sober and industrious population contributed more to stimulate the idle and dissolute class of convicts to exertion and enterprise than any force of legal control could have done. The town of Sydney, at Port Jackson, grew so rapidly, and the neighbouring country was so well cultivated, that during the year 1840 the exports from that place were valued at nearly two millions of pounds sterling.

The first years of the colony were truly disheartening to those interested in its prosperity. Two years from the time of the first landing, the supply of provisions brought from England gave out, the improvidence and dishonesty of the settlers had prevented the securing of the crops of the country, and the colony was only saved from starvation by the products of the sea. More than two hundred of the convict inhabitants were at that time sent, by the Sirius, to Norfolk island, where provision was more plenty. This vessel was

ordered to proceed to the coast of China for further supplies, but was wrecked upon a reef at her first place of destination.

Fresh stores and new cargoes of criminals finally arrived from England, and the direct pressure of destitution was less severely felt by the colony; but the frightful moral evils attendant upon such a system of collecting the most degraded and corrupt of a whole nation to form the mass of a new settlement, grew more and more apparent. The convicts were variously employed, according to the nature of their crimes, or their conduct in captivity. Great numbers, confined by fetters, were employed upon roads and other public works, and others were assigned, as slaves or bond-servants, to agriculturists and raisers of stock.

By continued good behaviour, additional privileges could be secured by the criminal, extending, in the first instance, to freedom, during a continuance of obedience to the laws, and afterwards to a complete pardon, except that a continuance in the country until the expiration of the original term of conviction was still required. The emancipists, or those whose term had expired, generally remained at the settlement. Increasing in numbers, wealth and influence, and no longer subject to the strict surveillance of their jailers and masters, these formed the most dangerous portion of the community. Feelings of great jealousy and rivalry existed between them and the free settlers, as the line of separation between the different "castes" was drawn with tolerable distinctness. One of the most universal evils was intemperance. Nearly all classes of society, at one period, are said to have indulged in gross intoxication. Intoxicating liquors became the most important currency or medium of trade, and formed the principal return given for labor. Private stills were set up, and their pernicious productions sold to increase the poverty and wretchedness of the miserable settlement.

Notwithstanding the many obstacles in the way of public prosperity in New South Wales, (the name bestowed by Captain Cook upon *the whole* eastern coast) emigration continued, and by the increase of cattle, sheep, and horses, to the raising of which the country has proved so signally well adapted, and by the improvements in agriculture, the self-sustaining powers of the colony were rapidly developed. Colonel Macquarie, who was governor for twelve years, from 1809, to 1821, made special efforts to elevate the character and social position of the emancipists. The favour shown by that officer to this class of the community drew down upon him much opprobrium

from the free settlers, "exclusionists," as they were called. It became notorious that convictions for crime were exceedingly difficult to obtain when a considerable portion of the jury were moved by fellow-feeling to sympathize with the accused. Many of the former convicts, however, soon learned to aspire to higher dignities and responsibilities than those attendant upon a seat in the jury-box.

It was under Macquarie's jurisdiction, and by means of the large force of convict labourers subject to his direction, that communication was first opened with the interior. A chain of rough mountain country was traversed by a passable road, and the vast plains at the westward were laid open to the shepherd and farmer. At the termination of his official career, the English colony numbered no less than twenty-nine thousand seven hundred and eighty-three, of whom over thirteen thousand were convicts. Twenty years later, the town of Sidney alone contained a population of about thirty thousand

A few years subsequent to the period of Macquarie's government, it was determined to make a new penal settlement at Norfolk island, lying not far from one thousand miles east from Australia, whither the most incorrigible reprobates from New South Wales should be transported. It is not to be wondered at that the island should soon have become, as it is described to have been, "a cage full of unclean birds, full of crimes against God and man, murders and blasphemies and all uncleanness." The hardened and desperate convicts, at the end of eight years from the formation of the settlement, made an attempt to massacre their keepers, and effect their escape. The insurrection was with great difficulty quelled, and eleven of the principal ringleaders were hanged.

The present condition of the English settlements in Australia encourages hopes of permanent prosperity. The customs are more and more closely assimilated to those of the old country: "Nothing," it is said, by an English writer, "surprises a stranger in an English colony more than the pertinacity with which our ways, manners, and dress are spread in these outlandish spots. All smells of home." Many formidable obstacles to the progress of civilization, agriculture, and the arts have been perseveringly and successfully overcome. The greatest difficulty which farmers have been obliged to contend with is the want of fresh water, consequent upon seasons of drought. Upon the comparatively barren fields, in the immediate vicinity of the capital, the soil of which lies upon a substratum of sandstone, this want of rain is severely felt.

One of the most fertile and luxurious settlements in New South Wales is that upon the plains of Bathurst, more than one hundred miles westward from Sydney, and accessible only by the mountain road opened by Macquarie. Unlike most of the country thus far explored, these plains consist of beautifully undulating prarie. Their elevation of two thousand feet above the level of the sea renders the climate cool and healthy.

In Northumberland county, next north of the principal county of Cumberland, a new source of wealth has been developed in its valuable coal mines. The rich valley of Hunter's river, in this district, yields abundant crops of wheat and maize; but the greatest drawback to its prosperity is its liability to sudden and tremendous floods, which rise, it is said, with frightful rapidity, to a height of nearly sixty feet.

Although a great variety of crops can be successfully cultivated in Australia, the attention of the settlers has been more profitably turned to grazing. The country and climate seem to be particularly adapted to the raising of the finer species of sheep. No where is a more beautiful fleece to be procured, as is evident from a comparison of the prices paid by English manufacturers for wool raised in their own country, on the continent, and in Australia.

"The form of government," says the Rev. W. Pridden, in his description of Australia, published in 1843, "is the same in all the British Australian colonies, and while the governor's authority is supreme, by virtue of his being the representative of the British crown, his power is restrained by an executive council and by a legislative council. The former body, whose office is to assist the governor in carrying the laws into execution, is composed of the colonial secretary and treasurer, the bishop and lieutenant-governor (if the last-named office is not abolished), under the presidency of the governor himself. The legislative council consists of the same persons, with the addition of the chief justice, the attorney-general, the chief officer of the customs, the auditor-general, and seven private gentlemen of the colony who are appointed by the crown for life." Two-thirds of this legislative body were required to agree upon any law before it could take effect, and all provisions were to be in accordance with the laws of England. Such a despotic system could only be tolerated in a society where the majority of the citizens were conscious that any attempt at self-government would result in anarchy and the overturn of all order and necessary restraint.

Some years since the whole system underwent a radical change. A liberal representative government was allowed to the colonists, and the importation of convicts was stopped. Those belonging to this unfortunate class now residing upon the main land of Australia, are, whether by tickets of leave or emancipation, in effect completely free, providing they remain in the country during the continuance of their term. This change has been attended with the most important results to the prosperity of the country. The line formerly so strictly drawn between the criminal portion of the population and the free immigrants becomes every year less defined, and in another generation will probably almost cease to be recognised. Bright prospects appear to be in store for Australia, especially if the parent-country, taught by former experience, shall pursue such a course of just policy as shall cause the colonists to retain their affection for the land of their birth, and regard her control and protection as blessings.

The large island of Tasmania, or Van Diemen's Land, separated from the southern point of the Australian main, by the Bass Straits, still remains a penal settlement. The continued remonstrances and vehement exertions of the inhabitants to have a stop put the importation of criminals, have been within the past year successful, but great numbers of prisoners are yet under restraint upon the island.

The honest and industrious portion of the colonists must have looked with continual regret and apprehension upon the constant arrival of ship-loads of the most depraved wretches from the old country, to be turned loose in the course of a few years to prey upon and demoralize the community. Two thousand eight hundred and ninety-four criminals were transported to Van Diemen's Land alone during a single year, from 1850 to 1851.

Tasmania receives its name from that of the Dutch Admiral Tasman who first discovered it. It was by him called Van Diemen's Land in honour of the Governor of Batavia. Lying farther from the equator than the English settlements of New South Wales, it has a climate generally considered more congenial to English constitutions. It is rather mountainous, with a beautifully variegated surface and a fruitful soil. The principal towns upon the island are Launceston, on the northern coast, and the capital, Hobart Town, at the south.

The other English Australian colonies are Australia Felix, at the extreme southern point of the main island; South Australia, lying farther westward; West Australia, at the south-western corner; and

North Australia, on the northern coast. The whole population of these settlements is not far from four hundred thousand, but since the excitement attendant upon the gold discoveries at the East, it is increasing in an almost incalculable ratio.

CHAPTER II.

THE GOLD DISCOVERIES IN AUSTRALIA.

In the month of February, 1851, Mr. Edward Hammond Hargreaves, having recently returned to Australia from the gold regions of California, was struck with certain similarities in geological formation between that country and the district in the vicinity of Bathurst. He at once commenced examinations of the soil, and speedily satisfied himself that a new and unlimited field was there laid open for the acquisition of wealth. Some specimens of gold had been found in different localities, long previous, but they had attracted little attention, and no one dreamed of a systematic pursuit of the precious metal until Mr. Hargreaves made known his discovery to the colonial government in the month of May.

All classes of the community were at once aroused to a state of the most feverish excitement. Although the winter was setting in, and the weather was cold and wet, crowds thronged to Ophir, for this was the name bestowed upon the district where gold was first discovered. The "Bathurst Free Press" of Saturday, May 17th, (1851) speaks as follows of the transactions of the time: "The discovery of the fact by Mr. Hargreaves, that the country, from the mountain ranges to an indefinite extent in the interior, is one immense gold field, has produced a tremendous excitement in the town of Bathurst and the surrounding districts. For several days after our last publication the business of the town was utterly paralyzed. A complete mental madness appears to have seized upon almost every member of the community, and, as a natural consequence, there has been a universal rush to the diggings. Any attempt to describe the numberless scenes—grave, gay, and ludicrous—which have arisen out of this state of things, would require the graphic pen of a Dickens, and would exceed any limits which could be assigned it in a news-

paper. * * People of all trades, callings, and pursuits, were quickly transformed into miners, and many a hand which had been trained to kid gloves, or accustomed to wield nothing heavier than the grey goosequill, became nervous to clutch the pick and crow-bar."

Great numbers of these adventurers were entirely unprovided with any kind of shelter, and, for their entire outfit, carried a single blanket, and some implement for digging or washing the soil. The consequence was a scene of great misery and disappointment to many who had come to Ophir flushed with hopes of success. Gold was indeed found in abundance, but fortune as much as industry and useful appliances seemed to govern the result of search. "As an instance," a writer speaks of "one little man, or, as he terms him, a 'shrimp of a fellow,' who, with a forked stick and an old frying-pan, raked up five pounds worth of gold in half a day."

Throughout the winter months of June, July, and August, no extremity of cold and exposure could deter the excited throngs from crowding to the diggings. On one day in July, eight hundred people were seen upon the road between Bathurst and Ophir. Large masses of native gold were continually brought in by lucky discoverers to tempt those who still held aloof to try their fortunes. One lump weighed forty-six and three-eighths ounces, and others of still larger size are mentioned; but the most remarkable discovery was made by a native in the employ of W. Kerr, Esq., of Wallawa. According to the journal above referred to, from a mass of quartz, weighing from two to three hundred weight, no less than one hundred and six pounds of gold were obtained. "The largest of the blocks was about a foot in diameter, and weighed seventy-five pounds gross. Out of this piece, sixty pounds of pure gold was taken. Before separation it was beautifully encased in quartz." This unequalled specimen was unfortunately, broken up by the owner for convenience of transportation.

If we may believe the accounts published at these early periods of Australian gold-mining, the conduct of the motley throngs engaged in the business contrasted pleasingly with the lawless violence too often witnessed under similar circumstances in California. "As a body," it was said, "the miners are civil and obliging. Almost every one came armed to the teeth, but now fire-arms are at a discount: the only use made of them has been to fire salutes."

A considerable sum was demanded of the miners by government

in the shape of license fees, the collection of which was attended with little difficulty and no resistance.

It is supposed that the whole range of the Blue Mountains, which extend in an almost unbroken chain throughout the whole of Eastern Australia, at no great distance from the sea-coast, is rich in gold. Great quantities of the precious metal are even now procured in Australia Felix, at the southern extremity of the chain, but none has been discovered in the adjoining province of South Australia. Here, however, extensive and profitable mines of copper have long been worked.

With respect to the present yield and inexhaustibility of the gold fields of Ophir, Turon, Ballyrat, Mt. Alexander, &c., there seems scarcely to be room for exaggeration. It is sufficiently evident that an ordinary workingman, meeting with a fair share of success, can secure an income more than tenfold what he could receive from any other manual occupation. One writer states, about the close of the year 1851, from careful inquiries into the amounts procured by the generality of labourers, that nine out of ten could make twelve hundred pounds a-year exclusive of expenses. Specific instances are given of large fortunes acquired in the course of a few weeks.

By the latest accounts, the quiet formerly noticeable among the miners has been seriously broken in upon, and great complaint has been made of the want of an efficient police force to check the murders and lawless violence too often witnessed at the diggings. One especial cause of difficulty has been the influx of convicts from Tasmania, great numbers of whom, upon tickets of leave, have thronged to the mines upon the main. Nothing, indeed, but a large force of armed men, or a determination on the part of the majority of the miners to preserve order by the exercise of summary violence upon every offender, could be expected to preserve order in such a community. At one locality, (the vicinity of the Mt. Alexander diggings) it was computed that there were, within a few months past, no less than thirty thousand labourers in search of gold. Great numbers of these being men who from childhood have been trained to disregard the laws of property, and others as we must suppose being driven to desperation by famine and exposure, it could hardly be expected that the mining could proceed without disturbances.

There seems no reason to fear that the final result of the apparently unwholesome excitement leading to the present unparallelled emigration to Austra'ia will be injurious to the interests

of that colony or the welfare of the world. Europe has a surplus population sufficient to bring the whole fertile country of the immense island into immediate cultivation; a population whose removal would be an unspeakable relief to the old country, and to which a condition offering opportunities for hopeful and profitable labour would be like a new life. Individual distress and suffering must, indeed, for a time necessarily attend the neglect of husbandry and the improvident venture upon an untried occupation, but these evils are much less overwhelming than was at first anticipated. A degree of forethought and prudence has been observed on the part of the agricultural population that excites our admiration. A knowledge of the hardships which the nature of the country must entail upon those who expose themselves without shelter or proper food to the fatiguing occupation of mining, caused the great body of the settled inhabitants of the country to proceed more cautiously than the floating population of the cities, or the adventurers freshly landed on the coast.

Some idea may be gained of the extent of emigration to Australia during the current year, from the following statistics: From the time of the discovery to the close of January, 1852, about seventeen tons of gold, valued at upwards of one million five hundred thousand pounds sterling, were shipped to England. Since that period emigration, and with it the yield of gold, have been so steadily and constantly on the increase as to outstrip all calculation.

The sailing of ships for Australia from the principal sea-ports both of Europe and America, has become a matter of daily occurrence. From London alone, according to a late account, two vessels freighted with emigrants were taking their departure every day.

Large establishments are maintained at this metropolis for the express purpose of furnishing Australian emigrants with the necessary outfit; and so systematized are the arrangements for this purpose that, for the surprisingly small sums of from four to twelve pounds, all the essentials for an utterly destitute applicant can be procured. This outfit includes a sufficient stock of comfortable clothing, a bed, blanket, sheets, chest, &c., &c., of various qualities, according to price.

Passage from England is provided by government to "approved" emigrants, upon the following exceedingly moderate terms:—"Agricultural labourers, shepherds, herdsmen, female domestics and farm-servants under forty-five years of age, on payment of one pound a head. Mechanics, countrymen being preferred, two pounds. Children under fourteen years of age, ten shillings each." The price of

passage in comfortable private vessels varies from fifteen to twenty pounds in the steerage, and from forty to sixty in the cabin.

With such facilities for removal, what wonder is it that the poorer classes of England are eager to try their fortunes in the new world at the south. At home their own prospects can be nothing but a life of toil, with scarcely a hope of bettering their condition; while for their children they must suffer still more terrible anxiety. In Australia, on the other hand, there is no position of wealth and prosperity for the attainment of which they or their descendants may not rationally strive. What though they bid adieu to old associations and ties, if these must be accompanied by privation and prospective destitution, or at best by an unvarying monotony of unprogressive labour. The most rational conclusion upon their condition and their wisest policy must be in accordance with the spirit of the pithy French maxim: "*La route vaut mieux que les souvenirs.*"

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY HISTORY.—GUSTAVUS VASA.—ERIC XIV.—JOHN.—SIGISMUND.—CHARLES IX.—GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

THESE countries, forming the great Scandinavian Peninsula, are now, though with separate constitutions and legislatures, united under a single sovereign. Originally peopled by the same race as the ancestors of the Finns and Laplanders, they were at an early period, occupied by the Gothic and other Germanic tribes. The famous Odin, (rather a mythological than an historical character,) removing from Denmark to Sweden, became the founder of the first royal dynasty of that country, (the *Ynglingar*,) which was succeeded by the *Ifwarian*, reigning until the middle of the tenth century.

In Norway, the famous Harold Harfagar (the "Fair-haired") in 875, reduced the various principalities of that country under his sole sway. Other dynasties succeeded in Sweden, but in 1397, both kingdoms were united under Margaret of Denmark, who had married a Norwegian prince. The Danish rule continued, for the most part, until 1523, when Gustavus Vasa ascended the independent throne of Sweden.

This distinguished monarch was a Swedish noble, and a kinsman of Sten Sture the Younger, administrator of Sweden during the reign of the last king of the three united kingdoms, Christian II. He was one of a company of six of the Swedish nobility, who were treacherously seized and thrown into captivity by Christian in 1519, when that monarch was vainly attempting to establish his authority over Sweden. Escaping from confinement, he wandered from place to place in disguise. A reward was offered for his destruction, and it was only by constant change of place and the observance of the utmost vigilance that he avoided the dangers which beset him.

Danish Costumes

Costume of the Swedes

Taking refuge in the wild and mountainous district of Dalecarlia, he commenced his work of rousing up the Swedish population to a thirst for independence. According to the popular account, (probably somewhat coloured and exaggerated) he toiled as a labourer in the recesses of the vast copper-mines of the country, working, by his natural eloquence, upon the minds of the rude miners until he had gained complete ascendancy over them.

His first public demonstration was at Mora, whither the populace had assembled from far and near to join in the ceremonies and amusements of Christmas. Addressing the crowd, he spoke so powerfully and feelingly of the oppressions under which the country had long laboured, and laid open such encouragements to those who would join him in throwing off the Danish power, that two hundred of his excited hearers were induced to put themselves under his command.

With this little band, Gustavus at once commenced hostilities, overthrowing the authority of the royal officials in various minor districts, and evincing small scruples in his treatment of all who were known to favor the alliance of the kingdoms. His force soon increased to three thousand men, and, following up his advantage, he had possession in 1522 of every stronghold in Sweden, with the exception of Stockholm, Abo, and Calmar. In the following year, a new diet assembled at Strengnaes, elected the conqueror to the supreme authority, and he was formally proclaimed king of Sweden.

The reign of Gustavus Vasa, which lasted until his death, in 1560, was principally remarkable for the overthrow of the power of the established church and the rise of Protestantism. This was brought about by the firm and constant efforts of the king. Without at first openly avowing his intention of subverting the old religion, he undermined the power of the ecclesiastical establishment by continual encroachments. He procured the passage of acts by which the tithes were seized, and devoted to defraying the public expenses; he aimed continual blows at the episcopal authority and dignity; and, above all, he left no means untried to effect the spread of Lutheran doctrines. The preaching of Protestant divines was every where encouraged, and when at last the people were prepared for the change, all concealment was thrown off, and with a high hand the royal reformer proceeded to cut off the last resources of the church, and to effect a public and formal abolition of the worship and doctrines of the Romanists. Although his course was marked by a violence accord-

ant with the spirit of the times, and although in his latter years his authority fell little short of despotism, Gustavus Vasa has ever been looked up to as the great liberator of his country.

His son, the weak, cruel, and capricious Eric XIV., succeeded to the throne. After an inglorious reign of eight years he was dethroned by his brothers John and Charles, the former of whom, being the elder, was proclaimed king. Eric died miserably in prison, after a long captivity.

John had previously married the daughter of Sigismund, king of Poland. She was a devout Catholic, and, by her influence, proceedings were set on foot for the restoration of former privileges to the church. The consequence was that most of her husband's reign was disturbed by bitter religious controversies. He was strongly opposed, in the measures which he was desirous to adopt, by his brother Duke Charles, who headed the faction of the dissatisfied nobility. He died in 1592, leaving the crown to his son Sigismund, who had also succeeded, by regular descent, to the throne of Poland.

Duke Charles had the real authority in Sweden, and after twelve years of quarrel and intrigue, during which Sigismund, embarrassed by the cares and conflicting claims of two distinct governments, was greatly at a disadvantage, he was made king. His reign was marked by unprofitable wars with Denmark, Poland, and Russia. On his death, in 1611, his son, Gustavus Adolphus, a young prince only eighteen years of age, who had signalized himself in the Danish wars, came to the throne.

Sweden appeared, at this period, to be in a critical position. She still held large possessions in Livonia, the great battle-ground of the Northern powers, which were threatened by both Poland and Russia. Her funds and forces were grievously reduced by the wars of the preceding reign, and the difficulties with Denmark were as far as ever from a settlement. Christian IV., king of Denmark and Norway, a warlike and enterprising monarch, was encouraged to hope for more extended success against a kingdom so surrounded by enemies, and under the dominion of so young and inexperienced a monarch. Gustavus, however, soon proved himself worthy of his high position by the exhibition of military talents, statesmanship, and policy, which gained him universal renown.

Denmark was glad to accept the mediatorial offers of James I. king of England, and a treaty of peace was concluded with Sweden in 1613. Russia felt the power of the young king, and after various

losses, the Czar, on the intervention of England, yielded the matters in dispute, and a treaty was brought about in 1617. Sigismund of Poland was the last of the three hostile sovereigns to listen to the demands of Sweden, but as Gustavus was now able to bring his whole force to bear against that power, a series of brilliant successes opened the way for an advantageous treaty. In 1629 a truce for six years was agreed upon, the Swedes meanwhile retaining possession of their late acquisitions in Livonia, and of other specified strongholds.

Thus far Gustavus had given his whole energy to strengthening the power and resources of his own dominions. He had brought all his military operations to a prosperous termination. He had assiduously devoted himself to the improvement of the condition of his people by wholesome laws, and by the encouragement of trade, agriculture and the arts. By the aid of the celebrated soldier and statesman Oxenstiern, whom he raised to the office of chancellor, he had removed abuses, established order, and systematized the affairs of government.

At this crisis he was called upon to undertake responsibilities far weightier than aught connected with his own kingdom, and to take the lead in a conflict which involved the destinies of Protestant Europe. The growing power of Ferdinand II., Emperor of Austria, and his evident plans for the subversion of the reformed religion and the rëestablishment of papal supremacy, excited universal alarm among all those European states in which the old establishment was no longer maintained. Christian IV. had in vain striven to check the encroachments of the emperor. With an immense army, led by Wallenstein, perhaps the greatest military leader of his age; with the assistance of the forces of the southern Catholic kingdoms of Europe; and with opponents weakened by long and desolating wars, Ferdinand might well anticipate success.

When the proposed campaign was discussed by the Swedish Diet, many were opposed to the commencement of offensive operations, but the energy of Gustavus bore down all opposition. A small force of veteran troops was left to defend the kingdom; ten thousand soldiers, under Oxenstiern, were quartered in Livonia to maintain possession of the Swedish conquests and to act as a reserve; and with fifteen thousand men the king embarked for Rugen to put himself at the head of the allied Protestant powers. A large body of English and Scotch auxiliaries was included in this force, and

many experienced British officers were in command of different detachments.

Rugen had been before taken by one of the Swedish generals, and on the approach of the king the imperial garrisons on the islands of Wollin and Usedom fled without an attempt at resistance. This was on the 24th of June, 1629. Gustavus soon made himself master of all the adjoining province of Pomerania; he established the Protestant power in Mecklenburgh; Landsberg and Frankfort on the Oder were taken; and, more important still, the Landgrave and Elector of Hesse Cassel and Saxony openly declared for him.

Wallenstein, the great general of the imperial party, was at this time deprived of command in consequence of various complaints preferred against him, and the forces of the Catholic League were led by the scarcely less celebrated Tilly, a brave soldier, and a commander of great experience.

By alliance with France and England, Gustavus was so far strengthened, in the year 1631, that he felt able to cope with the Imperial forces in the open field. Fresh supplies from Sweden and France, with a body of six thousand auxiliaries from England, increased his army to twenty thousand men. With these rëinforcements he did not hesitate to attack Tilly upon the plain before Leipsic, a city then in possession of the imperial general. The Austrian army was completely routed: twelve thousand of the imperialists were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners, and all their artillery and baggage fell into the hands of the victors. The battle was fought upon the 7th of September.

The Swedish monarch followed up this advantage by a series of the most brilliant achievements. "Leipsic and Merseburg opened their gates; many fortresses of Franconia were persuaded or forced to imitate their example; all Wurtzburg, with Marienburg, the capital, were cleared of the Catholic troops; Hanau and Frankfort on the Main were carried by assault; Bergsheim, Oppenheim, and Mentz were reduced; Spires, Linden, Weissenburg, Manheim, acknowledged the resistless victor. At the same time his arms prospered in all other parts of the empire."*

The Protestant forces overran nearly the whole of Bohemia and Bavaria. Tilly was defeated a second time, near the town of Rain on the Lech, and died a few days afterwards of a wound received in the engagement. Wallenstein (Duke of Friedland) was now restored to

* Dunham's Scandinavia.

the command of the Imperial armies. By his energy and military skill he regained Bohemia, and marched into Bavaria. He there besieged Gustavus in the town of Nuremburg; but after a heavy loss on both sides from famine and indecisive struggles, the hostile armies separated, and Wallenstein fell upon Leipsic. Having reduced the place, the Austrian general retreated before the advancing forces of Gustavus, and posted himself upon the plains of Lutzen. There was fought (in November, 1632) the terrible battle in which the brave Swedish monarch fell a victim to his own rashness.

Early on the morning of the engagement the hostile armies were drawn up in battle array, but so dense was the fog, that it was noon before either party would venture upon an attack. Gustavus was unable to wear defensive armour on account of wounds before received, "and he wore a simple leather doublet, with tunic of the same material." In this guise he rode along the ranks of his army, preparing the minds of the soldiery by encouraging speeches, and by various religious exercises arousing their zeal and enthusiasm.

As the fog lifted, the Protestant force commenced the assault, and met, at first, with signal success, but the consummate generalship of Wallenstein more than once seemed to turn the fortune of the day. During the retreat of a portion of his troops before the enemy, Gustavus, eager to rally and restore them to order, hastened forward in person. He out-rode most of his attendants, and "spurred forward close to the enemy's lines, his shortness of sight unfortunately preventing him from being aware of the danger." He was first shot in the arm, and the report of his injury spread like wildfire among his followers. The brave king still endeavoured to conceal his hurt, calling out, "It is nothing; follow me!" but, as he was endeavouring to escape from the melee to a place where his wound could be looked to, he was again shot in the back, and fell upon the field.

Night only put an end to the bloody contest, in which, although the victory was claimed by both parties, it is sufficiently evident that the Austrian general felt himself worsted, as he immediately evacuated Saxony.

A brief outline of the progress and conclusion of this long and bitter conflict between Catholics and Protestants—known as the Thirty Years' War—has been already given, under the title of Germany.

CHAPTER II.

CHRISTINA.—CHARLES X.—CHARLES XI.

CHRISTINA, daughter of Gustavus, a child only six years of age, received the crown of Sweden upon the death of her father. The government was carried on under the regency of the experienced chancellor and general, Oxenstiern, aided by a council of the principal officers of the kingdom. Under the administration of the chancellor, the honour of the Swedish arms was gloriously maintained. In 1643, in consequence of various alleged aggressions on the part of Denmark, a sudden attack was made upon that kingdom, and nearly the whole peninsula was overrun by the armies of Sweden. Various important engagements were fought, both by land and sea, in which the Danes were generally defeated. The most disastrous loss suffered by this nation was on the 13th of October, 1644, near Laaland. On this occasion fifteen out of seventeen ships, constituting the Danish fleet, were taken or destroyed by the combined navies of Sweden and Holland. In August of the following year, Christian IV., king of Denmark and Norway, was glad to accept of the mediation of France in the conclusion of a peace with Sweden. By the terms of the treaty, the latter power gained a considerable accession of territory, and, more important still, enforced a stipulation, by virtue of which her commerce was exempted from the heavy impositions to which it had heretofore been subjected by the Danes, in the shape of Sound-duties.

On the termination of the war in Germany, by the peace of Westphalia in 1648, the terms conceded to Sweden sufficiently attest the respect paid to her military power and achievements. The expenses which she had incurred in the prosecution of the war were partially indemnified by the payment of five millions of crowns; Rugen, Wismar, and large districts in both Upper and Lower Pomerania were confirmed to her; and she was further allowed the influence of three votes in the Germanic diet.

In the midst of these stormy and exciting events, Christina attained her majority, and proved to be a woman of a masculine and independent character. She greatly inclined to literature and the society of savans, devoting her attention and resources to collections of books

and works of art. The cares and responsibilities of government wearied her, although the state and dignity attendant upon her position as sovereign were gratifying to her pride. She was notoriously unchaste, yet obstinately refused to listen to the solicitations of her counsellors that she should form a matrimonial connection.

The ministry was finally startled by an announcement from the queen that she had resolved to resign her crown, in order to find leisure for her favourite literary and scientific pursuits. Although, for a time, dissuaded from this purpose, she finally persisted in it, and in May, 1654, abdicated in favour of Charles Gustavus, a nephew of Adolphus. No longer restrained by her position and the influence of Oxenstiern, Christina now had full scope for the display of her strange caprice and eccentricity. She had reserved a large income for her private expenditure, and, after embracing the Catholic religion, as a passport to the papal favour, she betook herself to Italy, where she trusted to shine as a literary star.

Here, and in France, where she courted the society of the celebrated Ninon de l'Enclos, she passed the remainder of her life. Her reputation was stained by a long course of licentiousness, and still more by the murder of one of her favourites, Monaldeschi, whom, in a passion of jealousy, she procured to be assassinated in the gallery at Fontainbleau. No attempt was made by those concerned in the administration of the laws to punish the perpetrators of this crime.

Charles X. came to the throne ambitious of military renown. He was of a bold and warlike disposition, and the fame of his predecessors, Gustavus Vasa and the great Gustavus Adolphus, excited him to emulate their achievements. He therefore cast about for causes of quarrel with the neighbouring kingdoms. The king of Poland, John Casimir, still persisted in asserting the hereditary rights of his race to the Swedish crown, and Charles considered his protest to this effect as abundant excuse for an invasion of Poland. The success of the Swedish armies was at first complete: Casimir was driven into Silesia, and nearly the whole kingdom of Poland submitted to the conqueror. Little real advantage was eventually gained by this achievement; Russia and Denmark espoused the cause of the Poles, and although the enterprising king of Sweden was almost every where successful, his enemies were too numerous to be reduced. Upon the first intimation of hostile movements on the part of Denmark, Charles at once took up his march through the intervening

provinces of Pomerania and Mecklenburgh, and fell upon Holstein like a thunderbolt.

"That province was speedily overrun, and planted with strong garrisons. The Danish admiral, Bilde, fled to Fredericia, while the Swedes spread themselves over the adjacent districts, and completed the subjugation of the whole peninsula, from the Elbe to the extreme point of Jutland."* During the winter of 1657-8, the Swedish king took advantage of a season of unusual severity to lead his armies successively across the broad arms of the sea called the Little and Great Belts, flowing, the latter between the islands of Zealand and Fionia, the former between Fionia and the main. The hostile armies were within a few miles of Copenhagen, and a negotiation was hastily opened by Frederick of Denmark, for the purpose of arranging terms of peace. As might be expected under such circumstances, very considerable cessions were demanded on the one hand and yielded on the other.

A treaty was concluded between the two nations, but the restless spirit of the Swedish monarch led him to violate it during the following year, and fierce hostilities ensued. An unsuccessful attempt was made upon Copenhagen in February of 1659, in which the assailants met with heavy loss. By the aid of troops from Poland and of their Dutch allies, the Danes were more successful than in the former campaign. The Swedes were utterly defeated near Odensee, and the fortress of Nyborg soon after fell into the hands of the enemy. In these disastrous engagements the flower of the Swedish army perished or surrendered.

The indefatigable king of Sweden only bestirred himself the more actively, in consequence of this reverse, to obtain new forces and prosecute the war with vigour. His enterprising designs were cut short by a fever, which carried him off on the 11th of February, 1660. His last advice to those into whose hands his power was transmitted was, that the storm, which his whole reign had been spent in arousing, should be calmed by immediate overtures of peace to every hostile kingdom.

At the death of Charles Gustavus, his son Charles XI. being a minor, the government was carried on by a regency of the five principal officers of state. Distressed as the country was by unprofitable wars, these nobles lost no time in complying with the dying injunctions of the king. Before the end of June, advantageous terms were

* Crichton and Wheaton's Scandinavia.

made with all the belligerent powers. Casimir renounced for ever all claims to the throne of Sweden, and confirmed the title of that nation to its possessions in Livonia, &c.; Russia and Holland readily came to terms; and, by the mediation of France and England, the difficulties with Denmark were amicably adjusted upon conditions favourable to Sweden.

Eleven years of quiet ensued, at the end of which time the kingdom was again involved in the horrors of war. By an alliance with the French king, Louis XIV., Sweden drew down the enmity of England, Holland, Brandenburg, and Austria. Her military ascendency and the good faith of Louis preserved her through the long and desolating wars which succeeded, and at the treaty of Fontainbleau, concluded, on the 2d of September, 1679, between France, Denmark, and Sweden, her interests were honourably maintained.

The latter years of the reign of Charles XI. were principally noted for his enormous assumption of power in the administration of his own government. Strange to say, the mass of the people applauded this course of the king: "according to Whitelock," says Crichton, "our ambassador to Stockholm during Christina's reign, not the peasants only, but the burghers, were so completely the slaves of the aristocracy, that they durst not openly express any will of their own. Hence they were extending the royal authority, which was always a shield to them against the encroachments of the nobles. One tyrant was found preferable to a multitude. But, to the great body of the people, no ruler has ever been, or dared to be, a tyrant: while his sceptre has been one of iron to a few obnoxious nobles, it has generally been unfelt by the community at large,—unfelt, we mean, so far as temporal security is concerned,—for of civil rights, of liberal principles, mankind in general has little conception."

The bold position taken by this author may well be called in question, and his sweeping conclusion belongs rather to a past age; but as far as concerns Sweden in the seventeenth century, both clauses may be strictly true. Among the arbitrary attacks made by Charles upon the wealthy aristocracy were the following: a commission of men entirely under his control was appointed to pronounce upon the real authority of the senate, and their report was, "that the senate did not form an independent or intermediate branch of the state, between the king and the nobles or the burgesses; that it was simply a royal council, with which he ought to advise;" former royal grants of immense landed possessions were resumed by the crown,

upon payment of the original consideration for their bestowment, the public debt was summarily reduced by advancing the nominal value of money; a great standing army was maintained, subject to the king's orders, in time of peace; and, more than all, a decision was obtained from the diet that, "although the sovereign was enjoined to govern his dominions according to the laws, this did not take from him the power to alter that constitution of his own authority, or to put the kingdom in such a situation as he might think most conducive to its interest and security. The authors of this decision, which rendered the monarch absolute, were the deputies of the burghers and peasants, who overlooked all consequences in their blind zeal to oppose the aristocracy and bring them down to their own level."—(*Dunham's Scandinavia.*)

Charles XI. died in April, 1697, at the age of forty-two, and left the throne to his son Charles XII., then a youth of fourteen.

CHAPTER III.

CHARLES XII.—HIS WARS WITH DENMARK, RUSSIA, AND POLAND.—HIS DISASTROUS RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.—HIS EXILE IN TURKEY.—HIS RETURN AND DEATH.

It had been directed by the will of his father, that Charles should enter upon the responsibilities of his position at the age of eighteen, and that meanwhile the administration of affairs should be committed to the queen-dowager, aided by a council. The young king, however, seemed, at this crisis of his affairs, to have undergone a radical change of character: a fondness for dress, display, and amusement, gave place to the sternest ambition. Before the expiration of a year, he obtained the assent of the councillors of the regency to his immediate assumption of power, and the queen being drawn by compulsion or persuasion to consent, the convened authorities of the states set aside the will of the deceased monarch, and Charles was crowned at Upsal. He evinced the natural impetuosity of his disposition by seizing the crown from the archbishop, and proudly placing it upon his own head.

On his accession the kingdom was at peace, but the youth and

inexperience of its sovereign tempted three great neighbouring powers to conspire for the recovery of those districts ceded by them to Sweden as the price of her forbearance in former wars. In the year 1700, Czar Peter the Great, Frederick Augustus, King of Poland, and Frederick IV., of Denmark, fell simultaneously upon the Swedish territory contiguous to their respective dominions.

With the first threatening signs of the storm about to burst upon his devoted country, the energies of the young king of Sweden seemed to be roused in proportion to the emergency. "To the surprise of every body, he suddenly renounced all his amusements, adopted the plainest style of living, inured himself to the most severe exercises, and fared as hardly, as humbly as the meanest soldier." His enthusiasm and determination inspired confidence and hope in all his subjects, and they looked forward to a renewal of their former glories under either Gustavus.

Charles first turned his attention to the humiliation of Denmark, and, aided by the fleets of England and Holland, both of which nations were interested in enforcing compliance with the terms of the last peace, he landed at Zealand, and laid direct siege to Copenhagen. Thus threatened, and too late aware that he had an enemy to deal with whose natural genius and impetuosity rendered him more dangerous than any of his predecessors on the throne of Sweden, Frederic was glad to conclude a peace. A heavy sum was paid to Sweden as indemnification for the expenses of the war, and Charles' kinsman, the Duke of Holstein, was reinstated in his power over the district which the Danish monarch had hoped to appropriate.

The famous Russian campaign next succeeded. Peter had invested Narva, on the gulf of Finland, with an immense force, but so ignorant and undisciplined were his troops that they could scarcely oppose the shadow of resistance to the veteran army of Sweden. Charles landed at Pernau, on the gulf of Riga, and marched across the country towards the besieged post. The forces sent to oppose his progress were swept away as by the rush of a tornado—The successive armies were overcome "with such rapidity, that the second and third were defeated before they were acquainted with the disaster of the first."

Arriving at Narva, Charles immediately fell upon the Russians, who numbered about ten times his own forces, and who were strongly intrenched in an advantageous position. A successful assault under such circumstances is elsewhere unparallelled in the annals of war, but such an advantage did military skill and experience possess over

brute force, that the result was the complete annihilation of the Russian army. Thirty thousand were slain, and the number of prisoners who laid down their arms and submitted to the conquerors was three times greater than that of the whole Swedish army. The news of this event spread dismay throughout Russia: the Swedish power was attributed by the superstitious people to necromancy and sorcery, and prayers were publicly ordered for the protecting influence of Nicolas their patron saint.

Peter was not present at the battle of Narva; he was engaged at the time in bringing up an enormous rĕinforcement, but, learning the fate of his army, dared to make no further demonstration, and drew off his remaining forces into the interior. After wintering at Narva, Charles proceeded into Livonia to punish his third enemy, the king of Poland. A Saxon army was stationed to oppose his passage of the Dwina. The Swedes immediately prepared boats, with high temporary bulwarks, affording a partial protection from the enemy's fire; and, concealing their position and movements by burning an immense quantity of damp straw, they embarked under cover of the smoke, and forced a passage. The Saxons were routed, with the loss of three thousand five hundred men in killed and wounded. A large army of Russians was driven from Courland, and the whole district was reduced. Frederic was now anxious for a truce, but the impetuous king of Sweden avowed his determination to treat only at Warsaw, whither he directly took up his line of march. Frederic, with his court, fled at his approach, and, without opposition, the Swedish army was quartered in the ancient capital.

Charles had now determined upon the dethronement of the Polish king, and the elevation to the monarchy of some noble of his own choice. He trusted that sufficient inducements, in the way of enlarged privileges and a more liberal government, might be presented to secure a ready acceptance of the change on the part of the inhabitants. Frederic meantime gathered an army of thirty-three thousand Poles and Saxons, and offered battle to the Swedes, whose whole forces amounted to but about half that number. An utter defeat was the result, and Charles followed up his advantage by the seizure of Cracow, upon whose inhabitants he imposed a tax of one hundred thousand rix dollars. This took place in July, 1702. The victorious leader was about this time disabled by the fracture of his thigh, which gave his opponent an opportunity to recruit his broken forces.

Notwithstanding the alliance and assistance of the czar, the unfor-

tunate king of Poland was unable to cope with his conqueror either in field or council. In the great battle of Pultusk, fought in May, 1703, he was again utterly defeated; and in February of the following year, a diet assembled at Warsaw passed resolutions excluding him from further authority in the government. Upon the nomination of the king of Sweden, one of the native nobility, Stanislaus Leczinski, was elected as his successor.

The czar and the deposed monarch of Poland still strove to resist the Swedish power, and with their combined armies obtained some temporary successes, but the indomitable energy of Charles soon checked their prosperity. In the year 1706, after defeat and immense loss in several sanguinary engagements, Peter was obliged to withdraw from the contest, and Frederic saw himself entirely at the mercy of the Swedish monarch. A humiliating renunciation of all claims to the crown of Poland, and an acknowledgment of the authority of Stanislaus were wrung from him, and Charles was left at liberty to revolve schemes of conquest more mighty than had yet engaged his attention.

Such was the terror of his arms throughout Europe, that he was enabled so far to dictate terms to the Austrian emperor that, throughout Silesia, the Lutherans were restored to their civil and religious privileges, and the German officers in the service of the czar were recalled. The great powers of France and England respectively sought his alliance; but it was plain that his whole thoughts were bent upon Russia. He purposed to attack the czar in his own dominions; to dethrone him as he had done his ally of Poland; and then to push his conquests farther and farther to the eastward. He also formed some vague plan for humbling the power of the Pope by an Italian campaign. "One year, he believed, would suffice for the conquest of Russia; a few weeks, according to the same calculation, would be sufficient to dethrone the holy father. Turkey seems to have been his next meditated object of attack; and after it Persia, for he sent engineers into those empires to draw maps of the roads and plans of the cities."* Without openly announcing his purposes, Charles led his forces out of Saxony, in September, 1707. He had with him forty-three thousand men, of bravery and discipline unsurpassed, well equipped and provided with arms, clothes, and money, the fruit of a long series of victories. In addition to these, were twenty thousand troops, in Poland, under his generals the Levenhaupts, and fifteen thousand stationed in Finland.

* Dunham's Scandinavia.

Not doubting his adversary's intentions, and hopeless of successfully opposing such a resistless force of veteran soldiery, Czar Peter retired before the advancing army, laying waste the country on his march. Charles directed his course towards Moscow, and reached the Beresina before a blow was struck in defence of the country. Worse enemies, however, than the Russians had already begun to thin his ranks. The season was unusually severe; forests, deserts, and marshes must be crossed, and the retiring Russians had broken down all the bridges on the route, and stripped the country of provisions.

A stand was made upon the opposite bank of the river, but the Swedes easily forced a passage, and took the town of Beresina. The river Halowitz was also passed, in spite of the horde of Russians stationed to check the progress of the invaders. The czar was now anxious to open a negotiation, but the only reply vouchsafed by Charles to his proposals, was a stern avowal that he would only treat at Moscow, the capital of the empire.

From this period commenced a series of terrible reverses, which ended in the overthrow of all the ambitious schemes so proudly cherished by the young conqueror. The obstacles to an advance upon the Russian capital proved so great, from the severity of the winter, the constant opposition, and the uncertainty of supplies, that Charles was forced to change his plans. Unwilling to retreat, he madly determined to pass into the Ukraine, where he expected to be joined by Mazeppa, the *hetman* or chief of the wild and warlike Cossacks, who had promised the aid of an immense force of his followers. After a terrible twelve-days' march, the famishing and exhausted troops reached the Desna only to encounter fresh forces of the enemy. They still conquered, but victory only opened a surer road to their own destruction. Mazeppa now appeared, with only about six thousand followers; the rest of his forces had been destroyed or scattered by the armies of Russia. The infatuated king was still firm in his determination to make a way to the Russian capital. The horrors of the march, during the fearful winter of 1709, can only be parallelled in history by those attendant upon the retreat of the French army from Russia during Napoleon's campaign. The shoes and clothes of the soldiers were worn out, and, destitute of baggage and provision, they were constantly harassed by the enemy.

The gallant army of Sweden was speedily reduced to only about sixteen thousand men; two thousand, it is said, perished in a single day, from cold and famine; the artillery, with the exception of about

thirty pieces, had been abandoned or taken by the enemy; the route had become more and more difficult; but in the face of all these disasters and losses the iron will of the leader remained fixed and immoveable. He pushed on, hoping to possess himself of the fortified town of Pultowa, in the Ukraine, about one hundred miles south-west of Belgorod, where great quantities of Russian arms and provisions were known to be stored.

Charles reached the town with the remnant of his forces, and immediately laid siege to it, but was unable to cut off communication with the Russian army. In one engagement he received so severe a wound in the heel that he was obliged to be carried on a litter during the succeeding operations. Czar Peter now appeared, at the head of seventy thousand men, to relieve the town. This army, although still far behind the Swedes in skill and discipline, was composed of very different materials from the ignorant hordes which had been so easily scattered in the earlier Russian campaign. Peter, with his accustomed perseverance, had given the most careful personal superintendence to the formation and instruction of an efficient force. The very victories of Charles had taught him the art of war, and, as his followers were by no means deficient in courage, such an immense army as he now brought against the devoted Swedes might have awakened apprehensions, even if the invaders were as fresh and well provided as when they marched from Saxony.

With about half his Swedish forces and with twenty thousand Cossacks, (great numbers of whom had joined him since the union with Mazeppa,) the impetuous besieger determined to attack the whole Russian forces in their intrenchments. On the 8th of July (1709) was fought the great and decisive battle of Pultowa. The Swedes sustained a total defeat: nine thousand were slain upon the field; the camp before the town was forced, and the division there stationed slain or captured; and all the treasures of former victories fell into the hands of the Russians.

With the greatest difficulty the king was saved, and carried in a small boat across the Dnieper. With a handful of his followers he hastened towards the confines of Turkey, still pursued and harassed by parties of the Russians. An immense desert ("the ancient wilderness of the Getæ") was crossed under the scorching heat of a midsummer sun, more formidable to the Swedes than the cold of a northern winter. In the passage of the Bog, a delay in the procurance of boats resulted in the capture of nearly the whole party.

The hair-breadth escapes and singular adventures of the wounded king during this disastrous flight seem more like romance than history.

The Turkish government, whose generous policy has ever extended an asylum to political exiles, received the fugitives with protection and kindness. Charles was allowed to establish himself at Bender, and to collect about him such of his scattered followers as from time to time, escaping from the search of the Russians, came over the boundary; his company soon amounted to about one thousand men. Achmet III., the Sultan, allowed the unfortunate king five hundred crowns a-day, for his support, and further sums were forwarded by France.

Here Charles spent several years in vain intrigues with the Turkish court. Alternately encouraged and disappointed in his hopes of obtaining the assistance of the enormous force of the sultan against the czar, he was at last forced to yield to the superior wealth and the judicious diplomacy of his rival. Peter, in the mean time, was enabled to carry out his plans for the improvement and education of his subjects. The great body of intelligent Swedes whom he held in captivity was distributed throughout his immense dominions: the officers and educated men were employed in teaching the sciences and ornamental arts; while the private soldiers, forced to betake themselves to useful mechanical operations, did more to advance civilization among the rude inhabitants of Siberia, and other remote stations of their exile, than a century of ordinary efforts could have effected.

In the absence of the master-spirit, Sweden lost many of her dependencies, gained at such an enormous sacrifice of life and treasure. The deposed king of Poland repossessed himself of his dominions; the czar seized on Livonia, Ingria, and Finland; Denmark again advanced her claims to Holstein, Bremen, and Scania, and bloody wars ensued between that power and the diminished forces of Sweden.

The overbearing conduct and vexatious intrigues of the exiled monarch at last determined the Ottoman government to rid itself of so unprofitable a guest, and money and an escort were proffered to Charles, if he would return home. Obstinately refusing to comply with the requests, and afterwards with the orders, of the authorities, the ungrateful and irrational mad-cap attempted, with his few attendants, to resist the power of the whole Turkish army. Most of his followers surrendered on the first demonstration, knowing that resistance would but insure their own destruction and endanger the life

of the leader whom they still loved and reverenced. The strangest scene ensued: the house was set on fire by the Turks, and Charles, sallying forth with a handful of men, fought like a demon until, his spurs becoming entangled, he fell to the ground. He was immediately seized by as many of the Janizaries as could lay hold of him, and carried (as is said, by the arms and legs, in a ludicrous position,) to the tent of the Turkish officer. He was removed to Demotica, whence he set out for Sweden, with an escort of Turks, on the 14th of October, 1714. After reaching the confines of the sultan's dominions, he dismissed his attendants, and, in disguise, accompanied by only two officers, pushed on, night and day, alternately riding on horseback or sleeping upon straw in a covered vehicle, until he reached his own country. About five weeks from his departure from Demotica he made his unexpected appearance at Stralsund.

His arrival was hailed throughout Sweden with the utmost enthusiasm, and preparations were made, on an extended scale, to resist the encroachments of the surrounding hostile kingdoms. But the power of the nation was greatly crippled by such a long continuance of war, and, after seeing Usedom and Rugen taken by his enemies, Charles was forced to evacuate Stralsund, and betake himself to Carlscroon, where he spent the winter, waiting for recruits to be raised throughout his kingdom. It is astonishing what exactions and burdens the Swedes patiently endured at this time, rather than submit to an invasion of their country. In the spring, an army of twenty-five thousand men was at the disposal of the king, and, to the surprise of every one, he made a profitless incursion into Norway.

That Czar Peter did not follow up his advantage in this weakened condition of his ancient rival, seemed at the time unaccountable, but the circumstance has been since explained by the revelation of a strange project fomented by one of Charles' ministers, the Baron de Gortz. It seems that the czar listened favourably to a proposal that the forces of Russia and Sweden should unite, to restore Stanislaus to the throne of Poland; to secure to Russia certain lost possessions of Sweden on the continent; and finally to make a descent upon England, for the purpose of revenging the seizure of Bremen by that power, by the dethronement of the reigning monarch and the elevation of the Pretender, a son of James II. The plan was favoured by various Catholic powers; the celebrated Cardinal Alberoni, minister of Spain, was eager in its advancement; and assistance was expected from the Catholic population of Ireland.

Until these arrangements could be concluded, Charles continued to turn his attention against Norway. In October of 1718 he again invaded that dependency of his Danish enemy. Ten thousand men under Arenfeld were dispatched into the interior, while Charles laid siege to Frederickshall. On the night of December 11th, the king was making his usual rounds to inspect the work on the trenches, which was carried on under a constant and heavy fire from the enemies' battery. His attendants, seeing that he exposed his person with his usual recklessness, begged him to observe more caution, but their requests were disregarded: as he stood leaning upon a portion of the parapet, he was killed by a small cannon-shot from the fort.

> "His fall was destined to a barren strand,
> A petty fortress and a dubious hand;
> He left the name at which the world grew pale
> To point a moral, or adorn a tale."

There have not been wanting those who maintain, from various circumstances, that he fell by the hand of an assassin. The question has been examined and discussed at great length by various writers, but as men of equal candour and means of information have adopted opposite conclusions respecting it, we can scarcely expect that, at this distance of time, any new light should be obtained upon the subject.

CHAPTER IV.

ULRICA ELEONORA.—FREDERIC I.—ADOLPHUS FREDERIC.—GUSTAVUS III.—GUSTAVUS IV.—CHARLES XIII. BERNADOTTE.—OSCAR.

Upon the death of the king, the Swedish army was immediately withdrawn from Norway, and the senate, convening at Stockholm, proceeded to settle the affairs of the kingdom. Baron Gortz was arrested, and being convicted of having lent his counsel to the more disastrous and oppressive acts of the last reign, was put to death. The crown was bestowed upon Ulrica Eleonora, a sister of Charles, but her power was curtailed by many restrictive provisions. By the new constitution, which was solemnly guaranteed by the queen,

JENNY LIND.

THE GREATEST SINGER OF MODERN TIMES.

Was born in the city of Stockholm, in comparatively humble circumstances Her admirable command of voice, at the age of five or six, attracted the attention of a Swedish actress, and she was placed under the care of Berg a most skilful musician, at the Musical School attached to the Royal Theatre Her first distinguished success was at Berlin, in the year 1842 or 1843 Her reputation at once became Continental, and from that time she has achieved a succession of brilliant triumphs in Europe, Great Britain, and America She is unquestionably the most popular public performer who has appeared within the memory of man—and deservedly, her wonderful talent in music being fully equalled by her generosity and kindness of heart

BERNADOTTE

JEAN-BAPTISTE-JULES-BERNADOTTE was born at Pau, January 26th, 1764. His father was an attorney. By distinguished bravery, he rose to be a Marshal of France under the empire, and on the dethronement of Gustavus IV. of Sweden, was elected Crown Prince of Sweden, of which, under the title of Charles XIV, in 1818, he became king. Offended by the arbitrary conduct of Napoleon, he joined the hostile alliance of Russia and Austria, and used his influence and military skill against his former master. After the fall of the latter, he ruled peaceably under the Russian protection, and at his death left his crown to his son Oscar.

the crown was to be elective, as in former times; the absolute power of the sovereign was restrained by the necessity for the assent of a diet to the passage of every law; office was to be bestowed only upon natives; the senate to have supreme authority during the absence or incapacity of the sovereign; and the sovereign to profess the reformed religion. Many minor articles were added, in favour of the ancient nobility.

The grand desire of the nation was now for the establishment of a permanent peace. Negotiations were immediately opened for this purpose with all the hostile powers. England was pacified by the cession of Bremen and Verden to her sovereign George I. as elector of Hanover, in return for which a large sum of money was paid, and the aid of her navy was promised in the Baltic. Stettin, Usedom, Wollin, and part of Pomerania, were ceded to Prussia; and Denmark was still more easily induced to lay down arms. The Russian despot feeling his power and the weakness of Sweden, was more exacting, but, by the intervention of other nations, he was compelled to come to terms. Plenipotentiaries from both countries met at Nystadt, a town in Finland, and a treaty of peace was signed on the 13th of September, 1721. The czar agreed to pay two millions of crowns in consideration of the cession by Sweden of Ingria, Carelia, Esthonia, Viborg and its territory, and the islands of Oesel, Dagoe, and Mon. Certain commercial privileges were moreover secured to Swedish merchants.

During the year preceding the consummation of these treaties, the crown of Sweden had been transferred, by request of the queen, to her husband, the prince of Hesse, who came to the throne under the title of Frederic I. His reign was generally prosperous and peaceful, and he devoted himself to strengthening and improving the condition of his country. In 1741 he became involved in war with Russia, and had the mortification to see the province of Finland reduced by the enemy. On the conclusion of peace, one of the conditions imposed by Elizabeth, then empress of Russia, was the appointment of one of her connections, Adolphus Frederic, administrator of Holstein, as Frederic's successor to the throne of Sweden. An insurrection of the Dalecarlian peasants, supposed to have been excited by Danish emissaries, added to the distresses and disasters of this season of hostilities.

Frederic died in 1751, and Adolphus succeeded in accordance with the provisions of the Russian treaty. This monarch reigned twenty

years, during which wars with Prussia and the intrigues of the great powers of France and Russia, disturbed the quiet of his kingdom. Two great parties were formed in Sweden; the one whimsically styled the *Hat* party, under the influence of France, inclined to support the power and independence of the crown; while, on the other hand, the *Cap* faction, favoured by Russia, aimed at rendering the king a merely executive officer.

Gustavus III., a son of Adolphus Frederic, came to the throne in 1771, upon the death of his father. This prince, more artful, bold, and ambitious than his immediate predecessors, evaded the signature of the "Royal assurance," by which former sovereigns had bound themselves to the support of the late constitution. Partly by management and partly by force, he succeeded in restoring to the crown a degree of independent and arbitrary power unknown since the time of Charles XII. By an alliance with Turkey, Sweden, in 1787, was drawn into a war with Russia, which, after several years of hostilities, was concluded without advantage to either party.

Upon the first signs of the French revolution, Gustavus eagerly lent himself to the support of the monarchical interests of Europe, and was engaged in plans and preparations for a mighty coalition with various nations of the continent, for the invasion of France, when he was assassinated in 1792. His successor, Gustavus IV., was then a minor, and the government was for four years conducted by a regency, during which time the judicious policy of avoiding all interference with the revolutionary proceedings at the south was steadily pursued. The marriage of the young king with the Princess Frederica, of Baden, a connection of the Grand Duke Alexander, which took place the year after he attained his majority, brought him unfortunately under the influence of Russia.

Gustavus joined in the great continental alliance against France, formed in 1805, and, after the brilliant victories of Napoleon over the Austrians and Russians, was left, in a great measure unprotected, to cope with the formidable power which he had ventured to oppose. The seizure of Stralsund, Rugen, and all the contiguous islands, was the speedy consequence. The immense power and influence of Napoleon, in 1808, brought down the hostility of Russia, Prussia, and Denmark, upon the kingdom of Sweden; and England was the only power from which Gustavus could hope for assistance against this fearful array of enemies.

Finland was seized by Russia; in an attempt upon Norway the

Swedes were completely repulsed; and, by some singular inconsistencies and exhibitions of jealousy on the part of Gustavus, various causes of offence were given to England. In the midst of these reverses, a large party in Sweden, convinced that the king was incompetent to govern in such emergencies, conspired his deposition. The attempt was successful; the person of Gustavus was secured, the Duke of Sudermania was made administrator; and negotiations were at once opened with the hostile nations. It was, however, impossible to conclude any terms with these powers until the signature by the king of a formal abdication, and the elevation of a new monarch.

On the 6th of June, 1809, the Duke of Sudermania was elected king, under the title of Charles XIII. The succession was made hereditary, and, by a constitution formed somewhat on the model of the English system of government, the royal prerogatives were fixed, and the power of the king was restrained. As Charles had no issue, and had arrived at an age which rendered it highly improbable that he should leave a lineal heir, the governor of Norway, Christian Augustus, of Holstein Augustenburg, a noble connected with the Great Gustavus by descent, and with the royal family of Denmark by marriage, was appointed as the next in succession.

In the same year, the refusal of Sweden to renounce her claims on Finland led to open rupture with Russia. The event was disastrous to the interests of the former kingdom: her northern provinces were ravaged, and peace was bought only by the cession of Finland, Aland, and East and West Bothnia. The following year saw Sweden in alliance with France, and in a great measure subject to the control of the emperor.

The most remarkable event in Swedish history, of late years, is the accession of a French soldier of fortune to the throne of that distant and northern kingdom. In 1810, the nation, through the sudden death of the heir presumptive to the throne, found itself obliged to seek out some person of sufficient talent and reputation to sustain the weight of the government. Marshal Bernadotte, distinguished in the service of Napoleon, had acquired the good-will of a portion of the Swedish army by his generous conduct in the late hostilities; and was, accordingly, by the reluctant consent of Napoleon, appointed crown-prince, with the real sovereignty of the nation.

The resolute maintenance of the independence of his kingdom was, no doubt, honourable to his feelings, but his concurrence with the allied powers in plotting the overthrow of France, and the per-

sonal part which he took in hostilities against the country of his birth, must always attach to his name a degree of opprobrium. In 1814, the sovereignty of Norway was formally annexed to that of Sweden, and in 1818, by the death of the king (Charles XIII.), Bernadotte assumed the crown, (which had already in reality been his,) under the title of Charles XIV. He died in 1844, and was succeeded by his son Oscar, the present sovereign, a prince, it is said, of amiable and enlightened character.

The present position of Norway and Sweden is far more favourable to the prosperity of both countries, than was their condition when politically sundered. From the time of Gustavus Vasa until 1814, Norway continued under the jurisdiction of the Danish monarchs, and when, by the treaty of Kiel, it was annexed to the dominions of Sweden, a strong spirit of opposition was exhibited by the native inhabitants. The liberal policy by which their local regulations and privileges were preserved, after the confirmation of the union with Sweden, served to reconcile them to the change, and old feelings of national hostility have long since given way to a sense of mutual dependence and identity of interest.

DENMARK.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY HISTORY.—THE UNION OF CALMAR.—MARGARET.—ERIK.—CHRISTOPHER.—CHRISTIAN OF OLDENBURGH.—JOHN.—CHRISTIAN II.

LITTLE authentic is known of Danish history during the few first centuries of the Christian era. Denmark was settled at an early day by the German Goths, a prince of which people, named Odin, quitting the country to found a new realm in Sweden, left behind him his son Skjold, the first of that Danish dynasty which for many centuries afterwards bore his name. The country was divided into small principalities until 833, when it was united under a sovereign named Gorm. In the following century Christianity was introduced, and diffused through the country.

The Danish rovers, or sea-kings, had for centuries been the terror of the neighbouring countries; and the shores of England had especially suffered from their ravages. Their final conquest of that country under Sweyn and Canute, in the early part of the eleventh century, has already been narrated. The sway of their sovereigns over the English, however, was brief, expiring with Hardacnute, in 1041. Their maritime superiority still continued, and for many centuries, commanding the great highway to the Baltic, they levied toll upon the numerous vessels that passed the straits.

Upon the death of Valdemar IV., the last of the ancient line of Danish kings, prior to the union of the Scandinavian kingdoms, a competition arose between the descendants of his two daughters, Ingeborg and Margaret. The latter, being the younger, was married to Hakon VI., of Norway, and her son, Olaf, was the last in the male line from the famous Harald Haarfager, the founder of that kingdom. Preference was finally given to Olaf, and his mother was appointed to the regency of the two kingdoms during his minority.

Olaf died at the age of sixteen, and by the concurrent act of the Norwegian senate and the Danish states, Margaret was appointed to a dignity never before enjoyed by a female, that of queen of Denmark and Norway. The succession was limited to Erik of Pomerania, a grandson of Ingeborg. In right of her husband, who had been formerly possessed of the crown of Sweden, Margaret now commenced a series of successful intrigues against his successor Albert of Mecklenberg. By large promises she conciliated the aristocracy, and finally obtained the consent of the Swedish senate to a union of the country with her own dominions. Albert, endeavouring to sustain himself by means of an army of German mercenaries, was defeated and taken prisoner.

In 1397, a meeting of commissioners, from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, was held at Calmar, and the famous treaty of union was discussed and settled. Erik of Pomerania was crowned king of the united kingdoms, and the regency was conferred upon Margaret until he should attain his majority. This celebrated woman, who, by policy and force, had attained such immense power and influence at the North, died in 1412.

The young King Erik proved but a capricious and unworthy sovereign. His reign was disturbed by wars with the counts of Holstein. and with the Hanseatic republic. This famous confederacy claimed exemption from the heavy imposts which were laid upon all vessels passing the straits commanded by the Danish castles. Erik was married to Phillippa, daughter of Henry IV., of England, a woman whose energy and wisdom served, on various occasions, to preserve her husband and his dominions from the consequences of his rashness or short-sightedness. Upon one occasion, when with the wild religious enthusiasm of the times, he made a pilgrimage, in disguise, to the Holy Land, the charge of the government was entrusted to the queen-consort, and her prudent administration was productive of the happiest results. She died in 1430, in consequence of brutal personal violence from the hands of her husband.

The tyranny and oppression exercised by Josse Erikson, one of Erik's provincial governors, excited a dangerous insurrection in Sweden. Commencing in Dalecarlia, the spirit of revolt spread so rapidly that, in a short time, the whole kingdom, with the exception of Stockholm and a few fortified posts, was under the control of the insurgents. After a temporary quiet, brought about by the intervention of the clergy, who were deeply interested in the preservation

of the union of Calmar, difficulties again arose, and the Swedish nobility elected Charles Knutson, one of the aristocracy, to the office of general administrator of the government.

The obstinate, but inconstant Erik, neglecting the affairs of his extensive dominions, withdrew himself from public duties shortly after the settlement of difficulties in Sweden, and took up his abode on the island of Gothland. He was deposed, in 1439, by the senate of Denmark and the Swedish diet, and Christopher, Count Palatine of Bavaria, a descendant of Valdemar, was chosen king. The unsettled and lawless state of the times is no where better illustrated than in the account of Erik's course of life subsequent to his deposition. It is said that he remained ten years at Gothland, maintaining himself by commissioning piratical cruisers to plunder merchant vessels, and to make depredations upon the sea-coast of the Baltic. He afterwards died in Germany.

Upon the death of Christopher, the Danish senate, in 1448, made choice of Christian, count of Oldenburgh, as his successor: in Sweden and Norway the ambition of the administrator prevented an immediate acquiescence. Knutson obtained, for a time, the title and powers of a sovereign in both those countries, but was unable to sustain himself, and Christian's authority was eventually established over the three united kingdoms. His adversary continued, however, even in exile, to push his claims, and, in consequence of some unpopular acts of the king, was eventually recalled to the Swedish throne. Upon his death, in 1470, the administratorship of the kingdom was committed to the celebrated Sten Sture, and Christian had thereafter little influence in the affairs of that important portion of his dominions. He attempted, both by negotiation and force, to establish his pretensions, but either method signally failed. Christian I. left the throne to his eldest surviving son, John; his second son, Frederick, was made duke of Sleswig and Holstein. On the accession of the new king to the throne of Denmark, in 1481, Norway and Sweden, although nominally subject to his jurisdiction, appeared to be, in effect, emancipated from his control. After two years of negotiation, the former state acknowledged his rights by a formal election, but his power and prerogatives were so trammelled by the articles of capitulation which he was required to sign, that the dignity of the title was nearly all that was left him in connection with the crown of Norway.

In Sweden, where the administration of Sten Sture had been gen-

erally popular, still greater difficulty was experienced. Negotiations were year after year continued, but were rendered abortive by the imposition of vexatious conditions, at the instigation of the administrator, and it was not until 1496-7, that the question was settled by force of arms. A strong party had been formed in opposition to Sture; Russia had been incited, as is said, by John, to ravage Finland; and, in the midst of these difficulties, the Danish monarch invaded the country.

Sten Sture was forced to yield the sovereignty, but such was still his power and popularity that it was deemed necessary to conciliate him by the bestowment of the governorship of Bothnia and Finland. John was now confirmed in his claims to the crown of Scandinavia, as incorporated by the union of Calmar. He was, for a time, exceedingly popular, but a reaction in the public mind resulted in the loss of the territory acquired by such long-continued effort. Sture again saw himself at the head of affairs, with royal authority, but with his former title of administrator. By the efforts of a powerful and influential Norwegian noble, named Canute Alfson, whose Swedish connections influenced his conduct, the opposition to the claims of John extended to Norway. This chief was treacherously murdered on board a Danish ship, as is supposed, by the directions of the king; but the indignation excited by his death only strengthened the cause of the revolutionists.

The southern provinces of Norway united with Sweden, and John, determined upon the reduction of his rebellious subjects, dispatched all the forces that he could raise, under command of his son Christian, upon a northern campaign. Christian was but twenty years of age, and the bishop of Hammer was associated with him to guard against any youthful indiscretions. The prince soon proved himself impatient of counsel and restraint, and of a cruel and revengeful disposition. His successes were marked by sanguinary vengeance upon the leaders of the opposition. One of these, Herlof Hiddefad, was put to the torture to compel a revelation of his associates, and was afterwards broken on the wheel. Numbers of the nobility of Norway were put to death; others were deprived of their estates, and the country at large was reduced to complete submission.

Proceeding into Sweden, Christian met with some success, and exhibited his usual cruelty in the treatment of those of the enemy who fell into his hands. The hardy and warlike Swedes were not, however, to be easily reduced, and the aid of ships and money fur-

nished by the Hanse towns enabled them to maintain their ground against the king. Long and wearisome details of warlike operations, and still more wearisome negotiations, occupy the history of the ten years subsequent to Christian's invasion of Sweden. The intervention of the Emperor Maximilian and of the Supreme head of the Church was called for by the Danish king, and in 1512 the Hanseatic confederacy consented to a discontinuance of the alliance with Sweden. In the mean time Sten Sture had died, as was supposed by many, from poison, and had been succeeded by his kinsman Swante Sture. Upon the death of this administrator, his son, Sten Sture the Younger, was elected to that important office.

King John died in 1513, and his son, as Christian II., was at once acknowledged sovereign of Denmark and Norway. In Sweden, delays and excuses were, as in former times, interposed by administrator and senate. Determined upon enforcing his claims, Christian, before coming to any open rupture, had the prudence to strengthen himself by friendly negotiation and alliance with the powerful Hanseatic commercial republic, and by a marriage with Isabella of Austria, grand-daughter of Frederick, and sister of Charles (afterwards the sovereign of Germany and Spain). He also united with Russia and England in a commercial treaty, having for its principal object the protection of trading vessels from the numerous piratical rovers which still, strange to say, infested the Northern seas.

Operations in Sweden commenced by mutual intrigues with the great officers of the church. Gustavus Trolle, elevated by consent of Sture to the see of Upsala, was completely won over to the interests of the king, who was no less successful in his overtures to Angelo Arcemboldi, legate of Leo X., and commissioned by that dignitary to collect tribute, and to traffic in indulgences at the North.

In 1517, Sten Sture convened the Swedish senate, and obtained their consent to the prosecution of active measures against those engaged in the conspiracy for advancing the claims of the Danish king. The primate, Gustavus, refusing to answer the summons to appear before the assembly, was besieged by Sture in his episcopal fortress. Christian procured a sentence of excommunication from the Pope against the administrator, and dispatched a body of troops to the assistance of Gustavus. Sture was, however, successful; he compelled the bishop to capitulate, and threw him into confinement, having obtained a decree from a diet, assembled at Stockholm, for his deposition.

Arcemboldi, eager to occupy the vacant office, now exerted all his influence in favour of the administrator, but Leo, fathoming his interested motives, still favoured the cause of Christian. The following year saw Stockholm invested by the Danish monarch with a fleet of one hundred and twenty sail. For the injury done to the primate, Leo X. had lent the countenance of the church to the invader, placing the kingdom under an interdict, and authorizing the king to conduct towards the Swedes as towards rebellious heretics.

In the first active operations the royal forces were driven back to the ships with loss, and, as winter was approaching, Christian professed a desire for negotiation. He avowed his willingness to present himself, in person, before the administrator, if a number of hostages would consent to remain on board the vessels as security for his safety. Six of the nobility, among them Gustavus Ericson Vasa, afterwards the founder of a new dynasty in Sweden, accordingly surrendered themselves; but the treacherous king, instead of fulfilling his promise, put them in irons, and sailed for Denmark.

By the aid of an immense treasure, collected by Arcemboldi in Sweden, and intercepted on its passage to Rome, Christian was enabled to make more formidable preparations than before against his refractory province. In the winter of 1520, Otho, his general, with a large force of Germans, and experienced mercenaries from France, Poland, Prussia, Scotland, and various other countries, passed the Sound, and made his way into West Gothland.

These veteran troops were at first completely successful: the Swedish army was defeated, and the administrator was slain, in the first engagement; the neighbouring provinces submitted to the invaders; and steps were taken by the senate, urged on by Gustavus (now restored to the primacy), for an acknowledgment of the royal claims. Christina, widow of Sture, at this disastrous period, with astonishing resolution and masculine energy, roused anew a spirit of resistance. The fortress at Stockholm was provisioned and supplied for the purpose of making a stand against the Danes, and, as the severity of the season presented obstacles to active operations, a temporary check was opposed to the progress of the invasion.

In the month of May Christian appeared in person, with additional forces, and laid siege to Stockholm. The brave and patriotic Christina still held out, and after spending the whole summer in fruitless efforts to reduce the capital, the king was obliged to resort to negotiation, false promises, and the intervention of the church.

He was admitted into the city, and received the solemn acknowledgment of the representatives of the nation that he was the rightful and hereditary monarch of Sweden. The homage of the states and a public administration of an oath of fealty, were followed by a formal coronation at Upsal, and Christian saw himself in full possession of the power and dignity which he had so long coveted. Previous to the acknowledgment, he had been required to sign articles securing to his new subjects their established rights and privileges, and limiting his own power, but these were soon forgotten or disregarded by the tyrant. Under the influence, as is said, of evil counsellors, men of low birth and hereditary hatred towards the aristocracy, he determined, notwithstanding the general amnesty which had been granted, to make an example of some of the principal Swedish nobility.

Professing to act under the general authority of Leo X., the king caused an extraordinary ecclesiastical court to be convened, and entrusted the office of accuser to the infamous Gustavus, archbishop of Upsal. All concerned in the deposition of the primate were arrested, tried, convicted of heresy and schism, and sentenced to death. The bishop of Linkoping alone escaped; when affixing his seal to the decree of deposition, he had taken the precaution to conceal beneath it a protest that the act was not voluntary, but by restraint.

On the 8th of November, 1520, no less than ninety-four victims, consisting of bishops, senators, and the chief magistrates of Stockholm, were led out for execution. They were beheaded in the public square, all demonstrations of the populace being quelled by an overwhelming force of armed soldiery. The father of Gustavus Vasa was among those who perished. The work of slaughter thus commenced was repeated, not only in Stockholm, but in the other principal cities of Sweden. Great numbers of the obnoxious party, who, tempted by false offers of pardon, had made their appearance in public, were seized and massacred.

Throughout the country, "scaffolds smoked with blood; gibbets groaned with the weight of their victims. Not only men, but women and children, were thus executed: even monks were drowned without the form of a trial—probably because the tyrant coveted their possessions."* All these atrocities the king professed to perpetrate merely as the servant of the church, and in obedience to the mandate of the infallible pontiff.

The escape of Gustavus Vasa from captivity, and the establishment

* Dunham's Scandanavia.

of Swedish independence, were contemporaneous with the total downfall of Christian. The nobility of Jutland formed a powerful league against him, renouncing their allegiance, and proffering their aid to Frederic, duke of Sleswig-Holstein, if he would seize the crown of Denmark. Against the combined hostility of Sweden, the Hanse confederacy, and his own rebellious subjects, Christian was unable long to contend. Driven to Copenhagen, it was supposed that he would make a strong stand; but to the surprise of all, he collected what treasures he could secure, and sailed for Holland, with a few faithful adherents. He was thrown by a storm upon the Norwegian coast, and, with the loss of most of his effects, afterwards made his way to the Low Countries, a powerless and miserable exile.

With the deposition of Christian terminated the famous union cemented at Calmar in 1397, and the crown of Denmark and Norway devolved upon Frederic.

Although the character of the last sovereign of the three kingdoms was blackened by a thousand acts of cruelty, it was not without some redeeming traits. His tyranny and ferocity were chiefly displayed in his treatment of the aristocracy; to the common people he was affable and kindly disposed. The immediate cause of the disaffection of his own nobles was the passage of two laws, through his influence, the justice and humanity of which could never be called in question. By the first of these, the power of the nobles over their serfs was abridged; and by several provisions the rights of that unfortunate class were protected. The other obnoxious regulation struck at a very fruitful source of revenue for the privileged landed proprietors of the coast, viz: the custom of forcibly seizing all property shipwrecked on their domains. The royal estates had previously been greatly benefited by this system of plunder, but when the impolicy of thus restricting his own privileges was pointed out to the king, he replied: "I would rather have no revenues at all, than that the poor mariners should be so inhumanly treated."

From his earliest youth the king had evinced a fondness for the society of the lower classes, and by mingling with them in his juvenile amusements and dissipations, he had acquired a sympathy with them in their oppressions almost unknown among the higher orders of that age. That these natural feelings of humanity may be combined with the most sanguinary cruelty and barbarity, a full recital of the acts of his life would sufficiently bear witness.

CHAPTER II.

FREDERIC I.—CHRISTIAN III.—FREDERIC II.—CHRISTIAN IV.—FREDERIC III.

By a policy directly the reverse of that adopted by his predecessor, Frederic conciliated the good-will of the powerful body of the Danish nobility. The unfortunate peasantry were more than ever humbled and oppressed, while the aristocracy exulted in the possession of discretionary powers far beyond any that had before been enjoyed by their order. Some strongholds still held out for Christian, and that prince made numerous unavailing attempts to procure efficient assistance, in the recovery of his dominions, from various European powers. Early in 1524, the year subsequent to his elevation to the throne, Frederic obtained possession of Copenhagen, and saw himself undisputed sovereign of the united kingdoms of Denmark and Norway.

The ambitious Admiral Norby, governor of Gothland under Christian, still maintained a hostile attitude. From this island, where he had strongly entrenched himself, like one of the sea-kings of an earlier age, he sent his piratical vessels to cruise throughout the Baltic, and prey indiscriminately upon the commerce of the neighbouring kingdoms. He aspired to the formation of a separate sovereignty of his own; but his depredations finally became so serious, that, by the ombined forces of Denmark, Sweden, and Lubec, he was driven from Gothland, and forced to fly for safety to the dominions of the czar.

The last effort made by the exiled Christian to recover his lost dominions was in 1532. By the aid of money and influence lent by his brother-in-law, the Emperor Charles V., he gathered a considerable force of mercenaries, and relying upon the loyalty of that northern dependency of his kingdom, sailed for Norway. With his habitual ill fortune, he lost no less than ten of his vessels in a storm; but reaching Opslo with the remainder, he found the country favourably inclined to his cause. Nearly the whole of Norway declared in his favour, and, with what forces he could muster, the king laid siege to Aggerhaus, a strong post still in the hands of the Danes.

The sequel proved that he had greatly overrated his own power;

beset by the powerful armaments of Frederic, both by sea and land, he was compelled to surrender at discretion before the close of the year, and, relying upon the assurance of the Danish officers that he would be treated with all consideration and protection by his nephew, the king, he proceeded to Copenhagen. It was determined by Frederic and his counsellors to place the unfortunate fugitive, who had thus thrown himself upon their protection, under close restraint. He was accordingly immured in a fortress upon the island of Alfen: the door of his dungeon was walled up; a small grated window, looking out upon the sea, and an aperture for supplying the wretched inmate with food, were the only openings of communication with the outer world; and here, with no companionship except that of a faithful and favourite dwarf, who shared his captivity, Christian spent twelve miserable years.

At the end of that time his place of confinement was changed and his condition was in some measure alleviated, but he remained a prisoner until his death in 1559.

Frederic died in 1553, the year following Christian's attempt on Norway. During his reign, the spread of the reformation had produced a great change in the religious aspect of the country. Lutheran preachers had been first tolerated and then encouraged, until men's minds had become so far disabused of former errors and superstitions that they had learned to think boldly for themselves, and the supremacy of that mighty system by whose spiritual and secular power they had been so long enslaved was now virtually at an end.

Christian III., son of Frederic, did not obtain the Danish crown immediately upon the death of his father. A period of turbulent *interregnum* ensued, during which the powerful ecclesiastics belonging to the old establishment made the most strenuous exertions to prevent the elevation of a monarch known to be favourable to the reformed religion. It was not until the country became embroiled in a war with Lubec, the chief of the Hanse towns, and until a hostile army, under Count Christopher, of Oldenburg, had reduced Zealand and the neighbouring islands, and was threatening Jutland, that the necessities of the times compelled the appointment of some efficient sovereign. Christian was chosen by the senate, upon giving promises of protection to church rights and privileges.

The country was in a most disastrous condition. It was surrounded by enemies, and distracted by the intrigues and quarrels of the different factions. The peasantry, taking advantage of the disturbed state of

affairs, broke out in dangerous insurrections against their old tyrants, the nobility, and inflicted long-cherished vengeance upon those who fell into their power. The aid of Sweden, and of the reformed states in Germany, was all that Christian had to expect in these emergencies.

The general spread of Lutheran doctrines formed the safeguard of the Danish government. Christian was finally enabled to recover the islands wrested from his control by the Hanseatic forces, and to establish his power over the whole of Norway. The authority of the church was nearly annihilated in Denmark, the temporal possessions of her officers were confiscated, and Protestantism became the established religion of the country. Christian died in 1559, after a reign of twenty-five years.

Frederic II., son of Christian III., previous to his father's death, had been acknowledged as his successor, and came to the throne without opposition. One of his first acts was to join with his uncles Adolphus and John, Dukes of Sleswig and Holstein, in the reduction of Dithmarsh, nominally a Danish dependency, but in reality a republic, in alliance with the Hanse towns. Sixty years before, during the reign of John, a signally unsuccessful attempt had been made to accomplish this object, in which the king's forces were expelled with immense loss.

A most gallant defence was made by the brave and patriotic inhabitants, but they were finally reduced to complete submission.

This campaign was followed by a magnificent and ceremonious coronation, at which the new king gave distinct pledges in favour of the claims and tyrannical prerogatives of the nobility. He also expressly acknowledged and declared that the crown was legally and rightfully elective, lest his own immediate elevation should form a precedent for the establishment of an hereditary monarchy.

A tedious and profitless war with Sweden, arising rather from natural antipathies, and the indiscreet jealousies of the young sovereigns, than from any substantial causes of quarrel, lasted from 1563 to 1570. When a peace was concluded at Stettin, it was upon mutual restoration of conquered territory. The kings of the respective countries continued the childish custom of quartering each other's arms upon their shields.

Little else of general political interest attaches to Frederic's reign. His chief merit was his patronage of literature and the arts. By his endowment of universities and academies, and his efforts for the extension of education among the commonalty, he effected a great

change in the condition of his people. Under his patronage, the renowned astronomer, Tycho Brahe, was enabled to pursue his brilliant researches and discoveries.

Christian IV. was a minor when, by the decease of his father, Frederic, the kingdom was settled upon him. A regency of four was established by the senate to take charge of public affairs until he should attain his majority. The policy of the officers to whom the duties of government were thus entrusted appears to have been, for the most part, wise and equitable.

From the death of Frederic II. to the year 1625, a period of thirty-seven years, the peace of Denmark was little disturbed, further than by a two-years' war (1611 to 1613) with her old rival Sweden. Christian IV., on attaining his majority, devoted himself rather to the increase of the power and influence of his kingdom, by enlarging its internal resources, than by warlike operations abroad. He caused the rude administration of the laws in his dependency of Norway to be systematized by the compilation of a fixed code, digested from the common law of the country. Throughout his dominions a great impetus was given to commerce by the building of dock-yards, and the establishment of manufactories for the production of articles requisite for the out-fit and defence of the shipping.

The name of this monarch is principally associated with the disastrous commencement of the famous Thirty-years' War. Christian was chosen, in March, 1625, in preference to Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, to head the Protestant union. He proved utterly unable to cope with the enormous power of the Catholic league. After repeated defeats, and after seeing Sleswig and Jutland in possession of or overrun by the forces of the enemy, he was driven to retreat to his insulated capital. The victorious Wallenstein, leader of the imperial forces, sanguine in his hopes of the entire reduction of Denmark, only delayed his advance until he could obtain possession of Stralsund. The siege of this place, the defence of which had been undertaken by the great Gustavus, led to such heavy loss on the part of the assailants, that their general was obliged to retire without effecting his object. The diversion thus made enabled Christian to obtain singularly advantageous terms with the empire, and to retire from the terrible contest with small loss, leaving the danger and the glory of his position as champion of Protestantism to the more able and successful king of Sweden.

In after-times, the old cause of quarrel—heavy impositions by

Denmark upon all vesssels passing the Sound, drew the country into war with Sweden and Holland, in which, for a time, its independent existence was threatened. Peace was only concluded upon the relinquishment by Denmark of her claims to the ancient and onerous levy.

Christian reigned until his death in 1648, and was succeeded by his son Frederic III., although the states had refused to elect him prospectively, during the life of his father. Upon his election, many restrictions were imposed upon the royal prerogatives: the senate was thereafter to supply vacancies in its own body; the king was no longer to appoint the viceroy of Norway; the independence of the senatorial decrees was confirmed; and by various other provisions, the power of the sovereign was rendered little more than nominal. These limitations stand in striking contrast with the absolute authority afterwards conferred upon the same monarchy.

The war with Sweden, in 1657-8, during the reign of Charles Gustavus, has been already briefly narrated. After a series of the most humiliating defeats, Denmark was, contrary to expectation, enabled to conclude a peace upon comparatively easy terms. Upon a renewal of hostilities in the succeeding year, the bravery and military skill of Frederic in the defence of his kingdom excited universal admiration.

The political revolution of 1660 was the most prominent and important event of this reign. It seems scarcely comprehensible to the inhabitants of a free republic, that the commonalty should associate the idea of their own freedom with that of an absolute and irresponsible power on the part of the sovereign; but such, as we have seen, was the case in Sweden, and, for the same causes, like results proceeded in Denmark.

With consummate art and secresy, the plan for the annihilation of the power of the nobles, and for the securing an hereditary and absolute authority to the king, was concocted and carried out. So powerful an influence was brought to bear by the clergy and the citizen deputies, who favoured the revolution, that the nobles were obliged to succumb, especially as a large force of soldiers subject to the orders of the king was quartered in the city where the diet was in session. The accounts given of the progress of this conspiracy, of the measure adopted to secure the favour of influential officers, and the precise manner in which the result was brought about, are neither distinct nor fully authentic. It is evident that the change must have been highly acceptable to the great body of the people,

who had for so many ages groaned beneath the oppressions of a tyrannical and insolent aristocracy.

Such an unlimited scope of authority as was bestowed upon Frederic by the new constitution cannot be parallelled by any similar document in the history of Europe. The supreme power of making and interpreting laws; of conferring and removal from offices; of declaring war; of the conclusion of treaties, and the imposition of taxes; the command of the army and of the fortresses; a control over the ordinances of the church; and the absolute property in all public possessions; all were secured, by the broadest and most indisputable terms, to the king and his hereditary successors.

The king wielded this immense power until his death in 1670. Although divers instances of cruelty and despotism are recorded of him, it may well be doubted whether it was not safer for his people that power should be so centralized. The publicity which must attend his more important acts should operate powerfully to restrain an exercise of wanton oppression by the monarch: the acts of private cruelty and injustice practised by a privileged order, were far more to be dreaded. That all the advantages hoped for by the commonalty were not derived from the change, is but too true. The nobles were impoverished by deprivation of ancient privileges and freedom from taxation, but the peasantry felt little alleviation of their own burdens.

Different historians have arrived at widely variant conclusions with respect to Frederic's character, and the use he made of unprecedented power voluntarily conferred upon him by his subjects.

CHAPTER III.

CHRISTIAN V.—FREDERIC IV.—CHRISTIAN VI.—FREDERIC V.—CHRISTIAN VII.—FREDERIC VI.—CHRISTIAN VIII.—FREDERIC VII.

CHRISTIAN V., son and successor of Frederic, came to the throne freed from the embarrassment of an election, and untrammelled by any of the assurances exacted from the sovereign at the commencement of former reigns. The more interesting and important events

of his administration, together with that of his son Frederic IV., being intimately connected with the affairs of Sweden, have been before alluded to. The last of the Oldenburg dynasty, Christian VI., reigned peacefully from 1730 to 1746. His enlightened policy and care for the prosperity of his people stand in strong contrast with the ambition and insane craving for military glory, to which despotic monarchs have so generally been willing to sacrifice the true welfare of their subjects.

During the succeeding reign of Frederic V., a period of twenty years, Denmark remained free from the burdens and calamities of war. A wise, equitable, and economical administration of government gave opportunity for wonderful improvement in arts, science, and manufactures. Many ancient legal abuses were corrected, and codes of civil and naval law were digested from the rude mass of authorities and unrevised statutes.

The unworthy and weak-minded Christian VII. received the crown upon the death of his father Frederic, in 1766. His reign lasted nominally until 1808, but during a great portion of that period, he had little real influence in the affairs of government. At the time of his accession, Christian married Caroline Matilda, a sister of George III. of England. She was but sixteen years of age, and is said to have been exceedingly attractive, both in person and disposition, but she experienced gross and even brutal ill treatment from her husband. She found a protector in the Count Struensee, a great favourite of the king, who had raised him from his first office of court physician, to a position of influence and authority.

By the intervention of this aspiring courtier a reconciliation was effected between the king and queen, who both honoured him with every mark of confidence. Gratitude, or perchance a warmer feeling, however, led Matilda to the indulgence of a familiarity with the count which eventually gave their enemies an opportunity to effect the ruin of both. That she was actually guilty of any thing further than youthful indiscretion has never been satisfactorily proved.

In the course of a few years the king sank into a condition of dotage and imbecility, and although his name was still used as the authority for all acts of legislation, Struensee was virtually at the head of affairs. The envious nobility regarded him with extreme jealousy and hatred, but the country in general was signally benefited by his administration. The emancipation of the miserable race of

serfs, an enlightened religious toleration, the abolition of torture, and many other useful changes, were, by his influence, either directly effected, or received an encouragement which eventually resulted in their full accomplishment.

A powerful conspiracy of the nobles was finally organized, and Struensee was arrested, informally tried upon charges of criminal intercourse with the queen, the abuse and usurpation of power, &c., condemned, and put to death, together with Brandt, one of his associates. Matilda was thrown into confinement, and died three years afterwards.

Juliana Maria, the queen-dowager, with her son Frederic, was now, by the incapacity of Christian, enabled to seize the reins of government. In 1784, Prince Frederic having reached his majority, (his sixteenth year,) was formally associated in the government, and the imbecility of the king was publicly recognised. The general policy of Denmark continued, under Frederic's rule, to be pacific and conciliatory; but during the stormy period of Napoleon's successes, she was drawn into the great vortex of European warfare. Joining in a coalition with Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, to resist the English claims to the right of searching neutral vessels in time of war, she was the first to suffer the consequence.

In March, 1801, an English fleet, under Sir Hyde Parker, consisting of eighteen ships of the line, four frigates, and a large number of gun-boats, forced the passage of the Sound, and came to anchor before Copenhagen. The city was admirably defended by fixed and floating batteries, and by a powerful naval armament. A force of ten thousand soldiers was stationed for its defence, and the whole population was roused by patriotic enthusiasm to share in the preparations for resistance. The entrance to the port was rendered difficult by the intricacy of the channel, but, after the necessary explorations and soundings, the harbour was gained, and one of the most desperate and bloody naval engagements ensued, of all recorded in modern history.

Nearly the whole Danish fleet was destroyed; only one vessel was taken to England, the rest being burned or sunk. Nelson was second in command of the English fleet, and to his efforts the brilliant result has been mainly attributed: after the battle, he said to Colonel Lundholm, aid-de-camp to the Danish prince; "I have been in one hundred and five engagements, in the course of my life, but that of to-day was the most terrible of them all." The English sustained a

loss of about twelve hundred men; that of the Danes, including killed, wounded and prisoners, was five times as great.

After this reverse, Denmark was obliged to yield to the requisitions of her powerful antagonist; the result was the entire dissolution of the continental league for resistance to English claims.

In 1807, a most outrageous infraction of the law of nations was committed by England. Although at peace with Denmark, she dispatched a naval force, too powerful to be resisted, demanding a complete surrender of the fleet and marine stores of her weaker neighbour, on the pretext that otherwise they might fall into the hands of France. This impudent demand was of course resisted by the Danish sovereign, and a second contest ensued, resulting in the partial destruction of Copenhagen, an immense loss of life, and the complete success of the piratical attempt.

In the year following this disaster the old king died, and Frederic, the sixth of the name, succeeded to the throne, after having exercised the powers of a sovereign, as crown prince, for a period of twenty-four years. The bitterest enmity towards England was the natural effect of the attack of 1807 upon the Danes, and the continental system of Napoleon was followed by their government.

Adherence to the cause of the emperor proved disastrous to Denmark when the tide of his successes had turned. After the battle of Leipsic, Holstein and Sleswig were reduced by the allies, Jutland was attacked, and further resistance appeared unavailing. By the treaty of Kiel, peace was concluded with England and Sweden, but Frederic was compelled to give up all claims upon his dependency of Norway, receiving, in exchange, Pomerania and the island of Rugen.

The absolute authority bestowed upon the Danish sovereign by the constitution of 1660 has been, of late years, restricted by the establishment of provincial assemblies in the principal divisions of the kingdom. That this despotic system should have been so long submitted to and approved by the people, speaks volumes in praise of the sovereigns to whom the power has been intrusted. The long reign of Frederic VI. terminated by his death in 1839: his cousin and successor, Christian VIII., died January 20th, 1848, leaving the crown to the present sovereign, Frederic VII.

Civil hostilities, of a sanguinary nature, have recently occurred in Denmark. The inhabitants of the duchies of Sleswig and Holstein, stimulated by the revolutionary spirit of Germany, have made a

vigorous effort to establish their independent nationality. At the obstinately-fought battle of Idstedt, on the 25th of July, 1850, an army of forty-five thousand Danes, under Von Krogh, attacked the revolutionary forces of twenty-eight thousand, under Willisen, and after a contest of two hours, in which seven thousand of the combatants were killed or wounded, compelled them to retreat. The success of the insurrectionary movement, at present, from the attitude of the neighbouring powers, appears hopeless.

The present dominions of Denmark are divided as follows: the peninsula of Jutland, including the duchies of Sleswig, Holstein, and Lauenberg; Zealand, Funen, and various smaller islands on the coast; Iceland, and the Faroe Isles. She has also colonies on the Western coast of Africa, in Upper Guinea; on the Nicobar Islands of the Indian Archipelago; on the coast of Greenland; and at the West India islands of St. Thomas, Santa Cruz, and St. John.

THE NETHERLANDS.

CHAPTER I.

THE ROMAN CONQUEST.—PHILIP OF BURGUNDY.—CHARLES THE BOLD.—MARY.—PHILIP THE FAIR: HIS MARRIAGE WITH JOHANNA OF SPAIN.—REGENCY OF MARGARET.—THE EMPEROR CHARLES V.

THESE countries, now politically called Holland and Belgium, have long borne the foregoing title on account of their low and swampy situation, being in some points even depressed below the level of the adjacent ocean. The industry of man has rescued from the sea this extensive tract, originally composed of a few sand-hills and marshes, half-covered by the waves, and has converted it into the most fertile, productive, and thickly-populated region of Europe. About the year B. C. 54, Julius Cæsar subdued or conciliated its original inhabitants—the Belgians, Batavians, and Frieslanders—and it became a province of the Roman empire. It was next a portion of the Frankish, and afterwards of the Germanic empire, and the provincial nobles and governors appointed by the emperors gradually acquired their independence. Thus were founded the earldoms of Holland and Flanders, with other principalities.

Philip the Bold, duke of Burgundy, in 1369, by marriage with Margaret, heiress of Flanders, secured a footing in the Netherlands. Civil wars had long distracted the different provinces, and a most favourable opportunity presented itself for an effort by a politic and energetic sovereign to unite the whole country under one government. By the death of his father-in-law, in 1384, Philip became, in right of his wife, count of Flanders. The death of the duchess of Brabant, a princess of kin to Margaret, resulted in the addition of her possessions to the territory of the duke of Burgundy.

From this beginning, by descent, negotiation, intrigue, force, and purchase, before the lapse of a century, nearly the whole country

was brought under the sway of Philip's descendants. Charles the Bold, by regular descent, in 1467, came to the throne of the united principalities.

The career of this headstrong, warlike, and haughty sovereign, was turbulent and eventful. In the beginning of his reign he had the forbearance to yield to the clamorous demands of his subjects of the Netherlands for a restoration of their ancient liberties and privileges, but, after the full establishment of his authority, he exhibited, throughout the remainder of his life, the most unscrupulous ambition, selfishness, and obstinacy. His great enemy was the subtle and intriguing Louis XI., of France, against whom he joined in alliance with Edward IV., of England.

Louis, justly standing in fear of so powerful a combination, negotiated with Charles for a conference, and willing to show his confidence in that monarch's sense of honour, repaired, almost entirely unattended, to Peronne, the place appointed for the meeting. An insurrection having arisen at this juncture in the town of Liege, excited, as was said, by French emissaries, Charles, in a fit of rage, treacherously seized upon the person of Louis. Liege was reduced and delivered up for plunder to the rapacious soldiery, in the sight of the royal captive. It is shrewdly suspected that but for a judicious purchase of the favour and influence of several of the counsellors of the Burgundian tyrant, Louis might have paid dearly for his misplaced confidence.

The court of Charles formed an asylum for Edward of England and his followers, during the temporary successes of Warwick, upon the restoration of Henry VI. The army of the count was augmented by hordes of mercenary adventurers from England and various continental countries. Such a soldiery was better adapted than the national forces to a successful prosecution of his unprincipled schemes of aggrandizement, and to maintain this motley force, heavy impositions upon the industry and wealth of the country were enforced.

Having added, by a forced purchase, the duchy of Guelders to his possessions, Charles turned his attention to the establishment of an alliance with Frederic III., emperor of Austria, by the marriage of his daughter Mary with Prince Maximilian. The two potentates met at Treves; but petty jealousies and an unwillingness on the part of the count to surrender any portion of the power then in his possession, broke off the negotiation.

The recovery of the throne of England by Edward IV. was fol-

lowed by a new coalition with Burgundy for the invasion of France; but Charles being engaged in a fruitless attempt upon Cologne and its territory, then attached to the emperor's dominions, was unprepared to join his ally when he appeared upon the continent. Edward consequently made peace with the French king, to the intense chagrin of Charles, whose characteristic rudeness and violence, on this occasion, eventuated in a rupture with the English monarch.

The crafty Louis now put on the semblance of approval of the ambitious purposes of his enemy, and averted the danger of an invasion from his own kingdom by countenancing Charles' claims to the imperial province of Lorraine. This district was soon reduced, and the duke, elated with success, formed extravagant plans for more extended conquests. He invaded Switzerland, notwithstanding the most humble deprecatory messages from the inhabitants of that country. His first attempt was signally unsuccessful: the brave mountaineers, taking advantage of the stupendous natural obstacles offered by the character of their country to the progress of an army, inflicted terrible vengeance upon the invaders. Repulsed, but not discouraged, Charles recruited his forces, and, a few weeks after his first defeat, was again on his march into Switzerland.

Louis, exulting in his reverse, lent to the Swiss the aid of a body of cavalry, which increased their force to thirty-four thousand men. "They took up a position, skilfully chosen, on the borders of the lake of Morat, where they were attacked by Charles at the head of sixty thousand soldiers of all ranks. The result was the total defeat of the latter, with the loss of ten thousand killed, whose bones, gathered into an immense heap, and bleaching in the winds, remained for above three centuries; a terrible monument of rashness and injustice on the one hand, and of patriotism and valour on the other."*

Moody and desperate at his defeat, the duke, during the brief remainder of his life, evinced even more than ordinary rashness and self-will. The confederate forces of his enemies were prepared to resist him in Lorraine, where he reappeared nine months after the battle of Morat. The treachery of the Italian Count of Campo Basso, commander of the Burgundian cavalry, and the unfaithfulness of the horde of mercenaries under the orders of that officer, completed the ruin of the duke. With his diminished forces, he could not be persuaded to wait for recruits, but attacked René, duke of Lorraine, by the town of Nancy, on the 5th of January, 1477. "On this occa-

* Grattan's History of the Netherlands.

sion the fate of Charles was decided and the fortune of Louis triumphant. The rash and ill-fated duke lost both the battle and his life. His body, mutilated with wounds, was found the next day, and buried with great pomp in the town of Nancy, by the orders of the generous victor, the duke of Lorraine."*

The sovereignty of the Netherlands devolved upon Mary, Charles' only child, then but eighteen years of age. Her position was trying and precarious: Louis immediately seized Burgundy, and excited the Flemings to insurrection against the authority of the young princess, by circulating the impression that she intended to govern according to the counsel of her father's Burgundian officers. Two of these were seized and beheaded by the people, despite the tears and entreaties of Mary.

This princess soon after married Maximilian, in accordance with the agreement formed and broken off during her father's life-time. The Emperor Frederic exhibited his usual miserly disposition upon the occasion of the nuptials: it is said that the prince was "so absolutely destitute, in consequence of his father's parsimony, that Mary was obliged to borrow money from the towns of Flanders to defray the expenses of his suite." The commencement of Maximilian's administration was prosperous. He defeated Louis of France, at the battle of Guinegate, in Picardy, and compelled him to conclude a peace upon favourable terms. Mary was killed by a fall from her horse, in 1484, and the remainder of her husband's rule in the Netherlands was disturbed by insurrections and internal dissension. The rebellious citizens of Flanders, at one time, seized upon the person of the prince, imprisoned him, and put several of his counsellors and followers to death. The forces of his father, the emperor, were brought into requisition to quell this revolt.

Called to the imperial throne in 1493, Maximilian committed the vexatious charge of the provinces to his son Philip the Fair, a youth of sixteen. The young duke and count proved highly acceptable to the fractious citizens. His good qualities are, indeed, said to have been mostly of a negative character: he was no tyrant, and his subjects were well satisfied with a prince who could content himself with a life of quiet enjoyment, instead of disturbing the national prosperity by schemes of personal aggrandizement. The most important act of Philip's life was his marriage with Johanna, heiress of the kingdoms of Arragon and Castile.

* Grattan's History of the Netherlands.

The peace of Philip's reign was disturbed by the resistance of Friesland and Guelders to the appointment of their respective rulers by the emperor. In the latter province, Charles of Egmont, a young and chivalrous prince, grandson of Adolphus, the former duke, stood high in the affections of the people, and maintained his position against the enormous power of the empire with astonishing success.

Philip died at Burgos, in Castile, in 1506, and Maximilian appointed his own daughter Margaret to the regency of the Netherlands. Possessed of unusual energy and a natural talent for the administration of the affairs of government, Margaret took a prominent part in the history of her time. Commerce and industry prospered, and the encroachments of France and of the young duke of Guelders were checked.

In 1515, Charles, son of Philip the Fair, then fifteen years of age, was made duke of Brabant and count of Flanders, and in the year following was declared prince of Castile, his mother remaining nominally associated with him in the government of that kingdom.

The rivalry of Charles with Francis I. of France, his accession to the throne of the empire as Charles V., the enormous extension of his dominions, and the exciting events of the Reformation, will be found under the titles of Germany, France, and Spain. The history of his minor province of the Netherlands, during those stormy times, presents little of striking interest as distinct from the general affairs of Central Europe. The maritime districts of Holland suffered severely from the attacks of the French cruisers upon their fishing vessels, but the southern provinces were less exposed, and enjoyed no little prosperity.

Upon the conclusion of the peace of Cambray, between France and the empire, the enterprising and industrious inhabitants of the Netherlands extended their commerce and manufactures with great rapidity. The Reformation, notwithstanding all the efforts of the emperor, who was a staunch Catholic, spread widely. In October, 1555, Charles resigned the empire to his brother Ferdinand, and all the remainder of his dominions to his son Philip, who thus became sovereign of the Netherlands. The condition of this portion of his possessions was opulent and flourishing in the extreme.

CHAPTER II.

PHILIP II. OF SPAIN.—HIS BIGOTRY AND TYRANNY.—THE FACTION OF THE "GUEUX."—THE IMAGE-BREAKERS.—SANGUINARY ADMINISTRATION OF FERDINAND ALVAREZ, DUKE OF ALVA.—WILLIAM DE LA MARCK.

PHILIP had passed his life in Spain, and was thoroughly imbued with the bigoted and intolerant spirit of the age. The citizens of the Low Countries had every thing to dread from a monarch of his disposition and education. Grattan speaks of him as, "at once the most contemptible and unfortunate of men. Isolated from his kind, and wishing to appear superior to those beyond whom his station had placed him, he was insensible to the affections which soften and ennoble human nature. He was perpetually filled with one idea—that of his greatness; he had but one ambition—that of command; but one enjoyment—that of exciting fear. Victim to this revolting selfishness, his heart was never free from care; and the bitter melancholy of his character seemed to nourish a desire of evil-doing, which irritated suffering often produces in man. Deceit and blood were his greatest, if not his only delights. * * * Nature had endowed this ferocious being with wonderful penetration and unusual self-command.— * * Although ignorant, he had a prodigious instinct of cunning. He wanted courage, but its place was supplied by the harsh obstinacy of wounded pride."

The most artful system of deceptive policy was adopted to bring the Netherlands under that despotic control which could alone satisfy the king. His designs were penetrated and his machinations defeated by the influence of William of Nassau, prince of Orange. In 1566 the odious tribunal of the Inquisition was established, by Philip's orders, in his dominion of the Netherlands. The inhabitants were naturally filled with horror and indignation at the atrocities attendant upon this religious persecution.

A powerful confederacy of many of the most influential men in the country was formed for resistance to ecclesiastical tyranny and cruelty, and for the preservation of the national liberties. The term "Gueux" (beggars), originally applied to the party as an expression of contempt, was unanimously adopted by the faction at a tumultuous

meeting, or rather drinking-bout. Gray cloaks of the fashion of those worn by pilgrims or mendicants were donned by all the households of those who openly favoured the patriotic cause, and other badges of the order, as miniature drinking-cups of wood, &c., were carried at the girdle.

Huguenots from France and Lutheran reformers from Germany eagerly hastened to take advantage of this attitude of resistance, to spread the doctrines of the Reformation throughout the Low Countries. The conventions of the Protestants, from being conducted in secret and by night, were held boldly in open day, and the assembled multitudes presented a formidable aspect by their display of arms and weapons. Extravagant excesses soon followed. In Artois and western Flanders a rude mob commenced the destruction of images and relics in the country churches. The fury of these "iconoclasts, or image-breakers," increased with the success of their first attempts, and the mad scene was enacted throughout Flanders. All those insignia of worship which superstition had invested with sanctity, were, under the influence of a superstition equally absurd, plundered and demolished. The magnificent cathedral at Antwerp, together with all the other churches in the city, during the absence of William, prince of Orange, was ravaged by the mob. Pictures, altars, noble works of art, and even the great organ of the cathedral, were ruthlessly demolished.

The immediate effect of these violent demonstrations of the popular sentiment was a temporary concession on the part of the governant, Marguerite, duchess of Parma, a natural daughter of Charles V., to whom Philip had entrusted the administration of affairs in the Netherlands. The Inquisition was suppressed, and various edicts against heresy were revoked. On the other hand, the image-breakers were in some instances severely dealt with, and many of the refractory were seized and executed.

Upon receiving intelligence of these transactions, Philip, with his usual dissimulation, affected a tolerance and moderation entirely foreign to his nature. He only awaited a convenient season for the infliction of the most terrible vengeance upon his rebellious and heretical subjects. The first step to be taken was to weaken and dissolve the formidable confederacy of the Gueux. This was accomplished by intrigues, deception, and threats, in the course of a few months. In April, 1567, William of Nassau, convinced that the patriotic cause could not be sustained against the military force

which was to be brought into the Low Countries by Philip, took refuge in Germany, carrying with him his whole family, except his eldest son William, then a student at Louvain.

A number of the more influential nobles, who had lent their countenance to the confederation, followed his example. Foreseeing the horrors that were likely to ensue, when there would be no further obstacle to the exercise of royal and ecclesiastical tyranny, the citizens of Belgium and Holland emigrated in vast numbers to England and Germany. Notwithstanding the letters of the governant, representing, in the most forcible manner, the ruinous consequences which must result from the introduction of a foreign army, the very anticipation of which was draining the country of its wealthiest and worthiest inhabitants, the king, in May, 1567, dispatched the duke of Alva, with an army of fifteen thousand veterans, for the Netherlands.

According to the description given by Grattan, "Ferdinand Alvarez de Toledo, duke of Alva, was of a distinguished family in Spain, and even boasted of his descent from one of the Moorish monarchs, who had reigned in the insignificant kingdom of Toledo. When he assumed the chief command in the Netherlands, he was sixty years of age; having grown old and obdurate in pride, ferocity, and avarice. His deeds must stand instead of a more detailed portrait, which, to be thoroughly striking, should be traced with a pen dipped in blood. He was a fierce and clever soldier, brought up in the school of Charles V., and trained to his profession in the wars of that monarch in Germany, and subsequently in that of Philip II. against France."

Alva reached Brussels on the 22d of August, and proceeded so to distribute his forces in the principal towns that he could completely control the country. He produced letters from the king, conferring upon him, in effect, the complete civil as well as military command of the Low Countries, and virtually superseding the duchess of Parma in the government.

A tribunal, or council of twelve members, was now formed for the summary trial of all concerned in the late disaffection. "By the people it was soon designated the council of blood. In its atrocious proceedings no respect was paid to titles, contracts, or privileges, however sacred. Its judgments were without appeal. Every subject of the state was amenable to its summons; clergy and laity, the first individuals of the country, as well as the most wretched

outcasts of society. Its decrees were passed with the utmost rapidity and contempt of form."*

Those whose wealth offered an inducement to the rapacious tyrant were the first victims, as confiscation of their estates followed upon their condemnation. Executions, by hanging, beheading, or burning, became incidents of daily occurrence. The minds of the wretched inhabitants seemed, in a measure, palsied by the depth of degradation and misery into which they were plunged. Flight seemed their only resource, and, despite every attempt on the part of Alva to restrain emigration, thousands of artisans and tradesmen took refuge on the hospitable shores of England, where the policy of Elizabeth led her to encourage their coming. The most important additions to the resources of that country were made by the establishment of manufactures which had hitherto been confined to the Low Countries.

In these devoted provinces the work of destruction was unabated. The governor himself is said to have boasted that during his six years' administration, no less than eighteen thousand of the inhabitants were put to death, conformably to the decrees of his infamous council. Industry and commerce were checked, and hordes of homeless and destitute wretches concealed themselves amid the marshes and forests, only issuing forth to plunder, or to revenge themselves, as occasion offered, upon their oppressors. Many took to the sea, and the coast was infested with piratical craft.

In May of 1568, the prince of Orange, having raised an army by the assistance of England, and of the Protestants in France and Germany, entered the Netherlands, and for a time met with signal success against the royalists. He could not, however, maintain his advantage; a portion of his army, fourteen thousand strong, under his brother Louis, was utterly defeated by Alva, near Embden, on the 21st of July, and before the close of the ensuing October, a want of funds and supplies compelled him to disband his forces and retire from the campaign.

From this period until 1572, the tyrannical viceroy had free opportunity for oppression and cruelty. The states were burdened with the most enormous taxes, and more and more of the inhabitants were driven to betake themselves to privateering. A powerful fleet belonging to the patriots was now afloat, and Spanish vessels could no longer pass the channel in safety.

* Grattan's History of the Netherlands.

The celebrated William de la Marck, count of Lunoy, called from his violence and impetuosity the wild boar of Ardennes, was the principal commander of the patriot naval force. The asylum offered by the English harbours to the Dutch cruisers enabled them to prey upon Spanish trading vessels with impunity, and it was found necessary, in order to avoid war with Spain, to prohibit these lawless rovers from resorting to those places of refuge. The consequence was the formation of a dépôt and place of rendezvous upon the island of Voorn, between Zealand and Holland. That the successes of the corsairs of the Netherlands were often accompanied by cruelty and excess, is but too evident.

Almost immediately upon Lunoy's seizure of Voorn, a general insurrection against the government broke out openly throughout Holland. A desolating and horrible civil war ensued. The inhabitants of such towns as were reduced by the Spaniards suffered every extreme of cruelty. As an instance, upon the fall of Haerlem, after a siege of seven months, "in pursuance of Alva's common system, his ferocious son caused the governor and the other chief officers to be beheaded; and upwards of two thousand of the worn-out garrison and burghers were either put to the sword, or tied two and two, and drowned in the lake which gives its name to the town."

On the other hand, these outrages were often fearfully rēpaid. William de la Marck conducted his operations with a ferocity which occasioned his removal from command by William of Orange, a prince who united the most undaunted firmness and courage with moderation and humanity.

The enormities perpetrated by Alva became, at last, so glaring, that even Philip was convinced that his rule could be no longer endured, and he was accordingly superseded, in November, 1573, by Don Louis Zanega y Requesens, a man of entirely a different disposition and character.

CHAPTER III.

ADMINISTRATION OF REQUESENS.—THE PACIFICATION OF GHENT.—DON JOHN OF AUSTRIA.—ALEXANDER FARNESE, PRINCE OF PARMA.—THE UNION OF UTRECHT.—THE DUKE OF ALENÇON.—MURDER OF THE PRINCE OF ORANGE: ELEVATION OF HIS SON MAURICE.—ALBERT AND ISABELLA.

ENCOURAGED by the conciliatory tone adopted by Requesens, and by the apparent weakness of his government, the patriots grew more bold and defiant. The governor perceived that his authority was to be maintained only by force, and the civil war speedily recommenced. To add to the horrors of the time, great bodies of the Spanish soldiery, discontented with the irregularity of their pay—for Alva's wholesale system of plunder had only contributed to the enriching of himself and his creatures—broke out into open rebellion. The commanding influence of the stern duke was withdrawn, and bands of brutal ruffians infested the country, pillaging without distinction or restraint.

The war raged with various success until the death of Requesens in March, 1576. One of the most brilliant military exploits of this period was the attack by the royalists on Zurickzee. On the night of September 28th, 1575, a Spanish force of one thousand seven hundred and fifty men effected a passage to the island upon which that town was situated, by fording a broad arm of the sea. The water was, in some places, more than waist deep; the night was exceedingly dark; and the alarm having been given of the approach of the enemy, the islanders were out in boats to intercept the passage. In the face of such obstacles, the main body of the Spaniards gained the island, and laid siege to the town.

A period of the utmost anarchy and disorder succeeded the administration of Requesens. The mutinous hordes of Spanish soldiers were proscribed by the council of state as rebels and traitors, whom it was the duty of all to aid in exterminating. Driven to desperation by this decree of outlawry, they only delivered themselves up to the wilder license. "Pillage, violence, and ferocity, were the commonplace characteristics of the times." The exertions of the patriotic

prince of Orange in behalf of his afflicted countrymen were unwearied, but so desperate appeared their condition and prospects, that, at one time, he advised the destruction of the dykes, and the entire submersion of the country, as the only means of freeing it from its foreign oppressors.

A congress was finally held in the town-house of Ghent, on the 10th of October, 1576, and the famous "Pacification of Ghent" was agreed upon and formally promulgated. The principal articles of this treaty or confederation, made between "the estates of Brabant, Flanders, Hainault, Artois, and others, on the one part; the prince of Orange, and the states of Holland and Zealand and their associates, on the other;" stipulated for a general union in war and council, for a united effort for the expulsion of the Spaniards, for religious toleration, and for a general amnesty for former offences.

The vice-regency of the Netherlands was next bestowed by Philip upon the famous military chieftain Don John of Austria, a natural son of Charles V. Such was the dangerous and troubled state of the country, that Luxembourg alone seemed to offer a safe residence to the new governor: from this town he sent formal notice of his arrival to the council of state. In accordance with the advice of William of Orange, his authority was only acknowledged upon a ratification of the pacification of Ghent, and the withdrawal of the Spanish soldiery from the country.

Don John, after his formal acknowledgment by the states, in 1577, appears to have soon become disgusted with the limited authority conceded to him. He first endeavoured to obtain from the council of state an enlargement of his civil powers, and the absolute command of the armies. Perceiving that the states were determined on adhering to the articles of the pacification, he sent letters to Philip, requesting an armed force to aid him in the extension of his authority. These letters, intercepted by Henry of Navarre, afterwards Henry IV. of France, were put in possession of the prince of Orange, and upon Don John's first violent demonstration—the seizure of Namur—were made public.

The states-general now bestowed upon the prince the title of "Ruward," or protector of Brabant, with almost absolute dictatorial powers, for the purpose of resistance to Spanish tyranny. Namur and Luxembourg were the only provinces of the Netherlands that still adhered to the royal cause, and acknowledged the authority of John. Jealousy of William's influence and ascendancy caused the forma-

tion of a new party of the Catholic population, headed by the duke of Arschot. The government of the country was proffered, through the influence of this faction, to the young Archduke Mathias, brother of the Emperor Rudolph II., and consequently a relation of Philip. Prince William prudently assented to the elevation of Mathias, but he succeeded in so limiting the new governor's authority, that little more than the title was left him.

The Netherlands were ere long desolated anew by the revival of civil war. A large Spanish army was soon under command of Don John; and his nephew, Alexander Farnese, prince of Parma, a son of the duchess, brought a strong force of Italians to assist in the reduction of the rebellious provinces. In the first important engagement, the royalists, under command of Alexander, gained a most signal victory—the extent of their triumph, indeed, as detailed by their own historians, exceeds the bounds of probability. In addition to this reverse, the patriotic cause suffered from bitter dissensions and jealousies among its leaders. While his prospects were thus brightening, Don John was taken with a sudden illness, as was currently believed, from the effects of poison, and ended his eventful life on the 1st of October, 1578. He was succeeded in office by the prince of Parma.

William of Orange, convinced of the difficulty of uniting the conflicting interests and prejudices of the whole of the Netherlands, now turned his attention to the northern provinces, and caused an assembly of deputies from Holland, Guelders, Zealand, Utrecht, and Groningen, to be convened at Utrecht. On the 29th of January, 1579, this body adopted a mutual covenant of alliance, known as "the Union of Utrecht," by which the sovereignty of Spain was, by necessary implication, renounced, and a federal government agreed upon "And thus," says Temple, "these Provinces became a Commonwealth, but in so low and uncertain a state of Affairs, by reason of the various motions and affections of mens minds, the different Ends and Interests of the several Parties, especially in the other Provinces; and the mighty Power and Preparations of the *Spanish* Monarchy to oppress them, That in their first Coin they caused a Ship to be stamped, labouring among the Waves without Sails or Oars; and these words: *Incertum quo fata ferant.*"

Meanwhile, the war continued to rage, and the warlike prince of Parma met with some brilliant successes. In the course of the spring an attempt was made to bring about a reconciliation between

Philip and his revolted provinces by the intervention of several neighbouring powers, but the bigoted tyrant obstinately refused his consent to any toleration of Protestantism in his dominions, and the negotiation fell through.

Early in the following year, the states-general were assembled at Antwerp by the prince of Orange, and, after full discussion, the sovereignty of Philip was formally disowned, and the United Provinces were declared free and independent. The duke of Alençon, brother of Henry III. of France, was elected as the head of the new government, his authority being restricted by numerous constitutional provisions in favour of the freedom of his subjects. The sovereignty of Holland and Zealand was secured to William of Orange, as the duke's subordinate.

In February, 1582, the duke of Alençon entered Antwerp, and was solemnly inaugurated. He soon proved himself utterly unworthy of his high position. In the words of Sir William Temple, "He continued his short government with such mutual distasts between the *French* and the *Flemings* (the Heat and Violence of one Nation agreeing ill with the Customs and liberties of the other) that the Duke attempting to make himself absolute Master of the City of Antwerp by force, was driven out of the Town, and thereupon retired out of the Countrey with extream resentment of the *Flemings*, and indignation of the *French;* so as the Prince of *Orange* being not long after assassin'd at *Delph*, and the Duke of *Parma* encreasing daily in Reputation and in Force, and the Malecontent Party falling back apace to his obedience, an end was presaged by most men to the Affairs of the Confederates. But the Root was deeper, and not so easily shaken."

William of Nassau perished just as he was about to receive the reward of his long and patriotic services, by the occupation of the office left vacant by the flight and subsequent death of the duke of Alençon. The infamous king of Spain had, in March, 1580, issued a proclamation proscribing the prince, and offering a reward of twenty-five thousand golden florins, with a pardon for any former offences, and a title of nobility, to any one who would "deliver up William of Nassau, dead or alive."

Instead of reaping the fruits of his crime in the shape of honours and emoluments, the assassin of the prince was taken and put to death, "with terrible circumstances of cruelty, which he bore as a martyr might have borne them."

William's second son, Maurice—his eldest being detained a prisoner in Spain—was raised to the office which had been destined to his father. He was but sixteen years of age, but gave promise of high qualifications and noble purposes. The duke of Parma, in 1585, pushed his conquests from province to province until the whole of what is now called Belgium submitted to his power. The aspect of the reduced districts, before teeming with a busy and prosperous population, is thus described by Grattan: "The chief towns were almost depopulated. The inhabitants had, in a great measure, fallen victims to war, pestilence, and famine. * * The thousands of villages which had covered the face of the country were absolutely abandoned to the wolves, which had so rapidly increased, that they attacked not merely cattle and children, but grown-up persons. The dogs, driven abroad by hunger, had become as ferocious as other beasts of prey, and joined in large packs to hunt down brutes and men. Neither fields, nor woods, nor roads, were now to be distinguished by any visible limits. All was an entangled mass of trees, weeds, and grass."

Unable to obtain assistance from France, torn as she was by civil wars, the states had recourse to England, and obtained from Elizabeth large supplies of funds and forces. With her usual circumspection, she demanded the surrender of Flushing and Brille, with the castle of Rammekins, as security for rēpayment. The Earl of Leicester, who had command of the British auxiliaries, conducted himself with an arrogance and undue assumption of power that disgusted the people to whose aid he was sent. Upon his return to England, the young Prince Maurice, with a degree of prudence, energy, and military skill beyond his years, set himself diligently to strengthening the defences of his northern provinces, "proving," according to Temple, "the greatest Captain of his Age, famous particularly in the Discipline and ordonance of his Armies, and the ways of Fortification by him first invented or perfected, and since his time imitated by all."

The stupendous preparation of the Spanish Armada, and its utter defeat, turned the attention of Philip for the time from his dependencies in the Netherlands; and in 1591–2, while the duke of Parma was engaged in behalf of the Catholic League against Henry IV. of France, Maurice had opportunity to extend his power by the capture of several Spanish fortresses. After gaining fresh laurels in France, and fully sustaining his former splendid military reputation, Alexander of Parma died in 1592. "With the Duke of Parma died all

the Discipline, and with that all the Fortunes of the *Spanish* Arms in *Flanders*."

To enter upon a history of the long career of Maurice, as the chief civil and military officer of the northern provinces, would involve a lengthened detail of political intrigue and warlike operations. We will pass rapidly over some of the more important incidents. The sovereignty of the Netherlands was conferred by Philip, in 1596, upon the Archduke Albert, brother of the Emperor Rodolph. The Spanish tyrant died in 1598, and in the following year the new sovereign of the Netherlands, in accordance with previous arrangements, espoused his daughter Isabella.

The free provinces maintained their independence in spite of all the efforts of the royalists. After various successes, the contending parties agreed upon a twelve years' truce, the treaty for which was concluded on the 9th of April, 1609. This interval, which should have resulted in universal prosperity, was disturbed in the northern provinces by harassing religious dissensions, and by the ambitious intrigues of Maurice, who, spoiled by success, aimed at regal authority. The ten southern provinces, (first known collectively as Belgium, about the period of the twelve years' truce,) under the humane administration of Albert and Isabella, recovered in a remarkable degree from their desperate condition, consequent upon the long-continued desolations of civil war. The commerce of the Netherlands, now enormously extended, was, however, mostly confined to the ports of Holland.

The part taken by the provinces of the Netherlands in the famous Thirty Years' War must be sought in the history of those nations which were more intimately concerned in that great struggle for religious liberty.

Prince Maurice died in April, 1625, at the age of fifty-nine. The despotism of his latter years contrasts unpleasingly with the patriotic services and generous enthusiasm of his youthful career.

CHAPTER IV.

FREDERICK HENRY.—THE TREATY OF MUNSTER.—TRANSFER OF BELGIUM TO THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.—MARIA THERESA.—JOSEPH II.—BELGIAN REVOLT.—LEOPOLD.—FRANCIS II.—THE FRENCH CONQUESTS.—FORMATION OF THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC.—THE KINGDOM OF HOLLAND.—THE KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS.—REVOLUTION OF 1830.

FREDERICK HENRY, who succeeded his brother Maurice in Holland, is described as a prince "of unblemished integrity, prudence, toleration and valour." Under his administration a series of brilliant successes, principally in naval warfare, paved the way for the formal acknowledgment of the independence of the provinces by the Spanish government. The most celebrated of these victories was that gained by the great Dutch Admiral Van Tromp, in the "battle of the Downs," fought near the English coast on the 21st of October, 1639. In this engagement no less than fifty Spanish ships were taken or destroyed.

Frederick died in 1647, and in January of the year ensuing, the famous treaty of Munster was concluded between Spain and the United Provinces. By the provisions of this treaty, the claims of Spain to the sovereignty of the northern provinces were for ever renounced; privileges of trade and navigation in the Indies were secured to the Dutch; and either nation was confirmed in the possession of all territory then in its actual occupation.

The republic was soon called upon to resist an oppressor still nearer and more formidable. Louis XIV. of France, a monarch of vast resources, devoted to ambition, and a determined enemy of liberty and the reformed religion, undertook the subjugation of these comparatively feeble provinces. Their prospect appeared desperate, but the genius and valour of the prince of Orange (afterwards William III. of England) saved the republic from destruction. The dykes were laid open; the sea, flowing over a vast extent of fertile and cultivated country, retarded the march of the invaders. It was even resolved by this patriotic and spirited people, in the event of their final defeat, rather than be subjected to the tyranny of French Ca-

tholicism to take shipping, and transfer their entire nationality to the Indian Archipelago. "There the Dutch commonwealth might commence a new and more glorious existence, and might rear under the Southern Cross, amidst the sugar-canes and nutmeg-trees, the Exchange of a wealthier Amsterdam, and the schools of a more learned Leyden." Happily, this bold and romantic enterprise was rendered unnecessary; the invader was repelled; and during an old age of misfortune, their grand enemy experienced the defeat and humiliation which he had so often inflicted on others.

By the peace of Utrecht, concluded in April, 1713, the provinces of Belgium were transferred from the jurisdiction of Spain to that of Austria. Their condition, under the succession of Austrian governors until the accession of the celebrated Maria Theresa to the empire in 1740, was generally peaceful and prosperous. The northern republic enjoyed an equal exemption from the desolations of war. Few absolute sovereigns have ever exercised their power in a manner more satisfactory to their subjects than did Maria Theresa in the government of her Belgian provinces. She appears to have conducted all plans of improvement and reform with great circumspection, and with all consideration for the deep-rooted prejudices of the people. Her more impulsive and zealous son and successor, Joseph II., in his enthusiasm in behalf of religious liberty and the reduction of papal authority, thoroughly alienated from himself the affection of his Catholic subjects in the Netherlands. A widespread and temporarily successful revolt was the consequence of his well-meant, but ill-timed efforts. In 1790, seven of the provinces formed a treaty of union, constituting themselves a confederation, with the title of "the United Belgian States."

The anxiety and distress of mind occasioned by this ungrateful conduct of Belgium hastened the death of the emperor. His successor, Leopold, lived but little more than a year from the time of his accession in January, 1791. During this brief period, however, he forcibly reduced his Belgian subjects to submission. His first attempts were by negotiation, but his overtures were contemptuously rejected. "The states-general, in their triumph over all that was truly patriotic, occupied themselves solely in contemptible labours to rëestablish the monkish absurdities which Joseph had suppressed. * * As might be expected from this combination of bigotry and rashness, the imperial troops, under General Bender, marched quietly to the conquest of the whole country."

At Leopold's death, the affairs of Belgium were restored to nearly the same state which had been so generally acceptable during the reign of the empress. Francis II., son and successor of Leopold, was the last of the Austrian emperors who had dominion over any portion of the Netherlands. The French revolution converted the Low Countries into a vast battle-ground for the contests of the republic with the allied monarchies of Europe.

Upon the breaking out of war with Austria, the French troops, under Dumourier, triumphantly occupied the Belgian provinces; and after a hurried form of election, in which, according to English historians, no real expression of the popular will was obtained, the Austrian Netherlands, early in 1793, were incorporated with the French republic. During the following year the Austrian arms met with temporary success, and Belgium was regained and put under the viceroyalty of the Archduke Charles, brother of the Emperor Francis. It was, however, utterly impossible for the Austrians and their allies to maintain their position. In the words of Grattan: "A succession of desperate conflicts were almost always fatal to the allied forces. The battle of Fleurs, fought on the 25th of May, rendered the French complete masters of Belgium."

Immediately upon the reconquest of the southern provinces, an immense army of the republic, led by Pichegru, invaded Holland. The inlets and arms of the sea, which constituted the most important defences of the country, were bridged over with ice by the unusual severity of the season, and every thing fell before the invaders. A strong party favourable to the French cause was now organized the last stadtholder, William V., fled to England; and the whole country was in possession of France, or favourable to her interests. A new form of government, and a new name, that of "the Batavian Republic," were imposed or assumed.

The consequences of French supremacy, with the enforcement of the continental system of non-intercourse with England, proved ruinous to the maritime districts of the Netherlands. Belgium, from her numerous manufactures, was comparatively independent, but the northern provinces depended entirely upon trade and commerce for their support and prosperity.

In 1806, Napoleon converted the Batavian republic into a monarcny, and bestowed the sovereignty upon his brother Louis. The amiable disposition and gentle conduct of the new king deeply ingratiated him with his subjects. Seeing the distress and misery

consequent upon Napoleon's policy, he connived at an extensive non-compliance with the restrictive laws, and thus acquired the ill-will of his superior. Wearied at last by the continual conflict between his sense of humanity and the necessity for compliance with the stern decrees of Napoleon, Louis in 1810 abdicated the throne. The kingdom was immediately annexed to the French empire. It was at this time that the conscription was first enforced in Holland, and by the operation of that cruel but impartial system, "nearly one-half of the male population of the age of twenty years was annually taken off"—taken off to serve as "food for cannon" in foreign wars.

Three years later, an extensive insurrection in Holland resulted in the proclamation by the people of the son of William V. as their independent sovereign. The speedy downfall of Napoleon and the success of the allied powers placed Belgium again under the dominion of Austria, but the consent of that sovereignty was obtained to a new arrangement, by which the whole of the provinces of the Low Countries were united under one government, constituting the "Kingdom of the Netherlands." By the revolution of 1830 a fresh separation occurred; and while the northern provinces still retain the title of the kingdom of Holland or the Netherlands, the southern are united under the new name of the "Kingdom of Belgium."

By regular succession from William I., his grandson William III. came to the throne of the Netherlands, in 1849. In Belgium, Leopold, duke of Saxe-Coburg, was elected king in 1831. In the character of the inhabitants of the Netherlands, from the first dawn of civilization to the present time, we are most called upon to admire the eminently practical nature of their disposition and aims. A noble spirit of enterprise, an indomitable perseverence, untiring industry, and love of country, have ever belonged to their national character. Sir William Temple, in his "Observations upon the United Provinces," written nearly two centuries since, concludes his chapter upon "their people and dispositions," with the following quaint summary:

"*Holland* is a Countrey where the Earth is better than the Air, and Profit more in request than Honour; where there is more Sense than Wit; more good Nature than good Humour; and more Wealth than Pleasure; Where a man would chuse rather to travel than to live; Shall find more things to observe than desire, and more persons to esteem than to love."

SWITZERLAND.

CHAPTER I.

ANCIENT INHABITANTS OF SWITZERLAND.—CONQUEST BY THE FRANKS.—CHARLEMAGNE.—INDEPENDENT PRINCIPALITIES. EFFECT OF THE CRUSADES.—FIRST LEAGUE OF URI, SCHWYTZ, AND UNTERWALDEN.—RUDOLPH OF HAPSBURG.

SWITZERLAND, the ancient Helvetia, has for many ages been known as the residence of a bold, ingenious, and liberty-loving people. The rugged and precipitous mountains, of which it is almost entirely composed, have not only served to harden the frames and elevate the souls of their inhabitants, but have always proved the most efficient barrier against foreign invasion and tyranny. It was originally thinly inhabited by a race of savage and hardy mountaineers, who were, however, at an early period obliged to yield to the superior forces of the Roman empire. After remaining a Roman province until A. D. 406, the country fell under the power of the roving nations of the Alemanni and Burgundians, then on their grand migration of conquest and plunder.

At the commencement of the sixth century, the Burgundians were established in the south-western districts of Helvetia, in the vicinity of the lakes of Geneva and Neuchatel; the Alemanni and the powerful nation of the Franks occupied the northern provinces; and the Ostrogoths, then under the rule of Theodoric, had possession of Rhætia. Traces of this division are still plainly observable in the difference of language and bodily conformation observable in the inhabitants of the various cantons. Within a few years from this period the Franks had conquered and subjected the whole country, which became an integral portion of their vast empire. The Roman population and the aboriginal inhabitants occupied an inferior position in society, and were excluded from the privilege of bearing arms. The introduction of the feudal system secured to the sover-

eign the command of a numerous and efficient force of well-appointed warriors, while it gave opportunity to the conditional proprietors of the soil so to increase their individual influence and possessions that, in the course of events, the more powerful of them were enabled to throw off the yoke of their superiors, and establish independent principalities.

Helvetia was ruled by a succession of Frank sovereigns, of the family of Meroveus, until the establishment of the Carlovingian dynasty, (so called from Charlemagne, the second and greatest of the line,) in the year 751. Most of the country was in an exceedingly rude and uncultivated state. The clergy were almost the only portion of the community who devoted any attention to literature: very few among the laity could even read and write. A superstitious form of Christianity was the prevailing religion, and constituted the only light thrown upon the darkened minds of the rude and ignorant inhabitants.

Charlemagne bestowed no little attention upon the extension of education, and the introduction of agricultural improvements in these mountainous provinces of his immense empire. He even took the extraordinary step of forcibly transporting a population of Saxons, placed in his power by the fortune of war, into several districts of Helvetia. The cultivation of the vine, since such an important source of wealth, was introduced by this energetic and politic emperor.

The death of Charlemagne, in 814, was the signal for the dismemberment of Helvetia from the western empire, and many of the chiefs and nobles of Switzerland, secured by the inaccessible nature of their domains, succeeded in maintaining their independence. For some centuries no fixed or regular form of government was established in the country. The lords or counts generally acknowledged a nominal allegiance to the German emperors, but each exercised despotic sway over his own principality. Endless strife existed between rival aspirants to power: "even the servants of the church began to stretch their holy hands in every direction after the treasures of this world. Enriched by perpetual pious bequests, they at length found themselves strong enough to push their pretensions, if need were, at the point of the sword."

In the early part of the tenth century, the incursions of the ferocious Magyars, from Hungary, desolated many thriving and prosperous provinces of Germany, Helvetia, and Italy: the fierce barbarians even penetrated into France. It was in this emergency

that Henry I., surnamed the Fowler, commenced an effectual system of protecting the more important Helvetian towns by walls, that they might serve as places of refuge against the rude invaders. From this beginning arose a new power in the state, destined to operate as a curb upon the capricious and tyrannical aristocracy, and as a most efficient aid in enforcing the authority of the emperors. The inhabitants of the walled towns organized themselves into powerful confederacies or corporations, and were enabled successfully to cope, not only with the military force of the nobles, but with the no less dangerous secular power of the clergy.

The ascendency of papal authority, and the desperate contests involved in the resistance of Germany to the pontifical decrees, during the eleventh century proved disastrous to Helvetia. The establishment in authority of the princes of Zæringen, about the period of the first crusades, was a prelude to a more prosperous period. The beneficial effects of those extravagant expeditions upon the people at large, in this, as in many other European countries, have been enumerated as follows: "Many noble lords had found their death in the crusades; many families were impoverished and forced to alienate their properties. In this way the large landed estates were brought into numerous hands, whereby not only freemen but bondsmen improved their situation, and were enabled to acquire property. The latter class were treated with more humanity by their masters, lest they should march off in a body with the crusaders; and received tracts of land from the owners for cultivation, on the payment of ground rents and other dues. Thus the vassals were encouraged to exertion and economy; many of them succeeded in still farther bettering their condition, and in buying off their old or recent burdens and obligations. * * Thus a gradually altered aspect was taken by Helvetia, in common with the other lands on this side the Alps, partly through the growth of the towns, partly through the effect of the crusades. Improvements were effected in agriculture. Not only many better modes of laying out the land were introduced from the examples of other countries, but new species of vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, and grains were imported."*

About the middle of the thirteenth century, and not long before the turbulent period of interregnum preceding the elevation of Rudolph of Hapsburg to the imperial throne, a league for mutual protection was formed between Zurich and the three districts of Uri,

* Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopædia.

Unterwalden, and Schwytz. From the latter the name of Switzerland was afterwards derived, and applied to the whole country. These districts had for many years maintained a degree of independence, having succeeded in abolishing the office of "Vogt," or imperial bailiff. In 1257, the disturbed state of the times induced them to revive that ancient dignity, and it was accordingly conferred upon Rudolph: Zurich also invested him with the command of her military force.

As emperor, Rudolph at first showed great favour to the comparatively free provinces of Switzerland, but with the increase and extension of his power, he exhibited a more ambitious and tyrannical spirit than in his earlier years. Having created his sons Rudolph and Albert dukes of Swabia and Austria, he formed a design of establishing his favourite son Hartmann in the sovereignty of the ancient kingdom of Burgundy. In endeavours to carry out this project, he invaded the liberties of Berne and Savoy; but the death of Hartmann disappointed his anticipations, and the native valour and patriotism of the Swiss rendered his military operations abortive.

Rudolph died, after a reign of eighteen years, and was succeeded by his only surviving son, Albert. The diet of the nobles of the empire, at their first convocation, elected Adolphus of Nassau to the imperial office, but Albert, by intrigue and force, procured the deposition of that unfortunate sovereign and his own elevation.

CHAPTER II.

ALBERT OF HAPSBURG.—HERMANN GESSLER, AND BERENGER OF LANDENBERG.—COMMENCEMENT OF THE SWISS REVOLUTION.—WILLIAM TELL.—SWITZERLAND INDEPENDENT OF AUSTRIA.—INVASION BY LEOPOLD.—BATTLE OF SEMPACH.

THE character of Albert of Hapsburg was marked by few of the redeeming traits which, in spite of his ambition and love of power, secured to Rudolph a general popularity and the affection of his associates and followers. He was "hard, unfeeling, rapacious, and

unscrupulous in his views of aggrandizement. * * He was feared by all, hated by many, loved by none, and the father's truest friends were speedily alienated by the son." His first effort in Switzerland was to procure the annexation of Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden to Austria, as distinct from their general connection with and dependence on the empire. He deputed officers of his own private appointment to govern these provinces, and when the people complained of the innovation, and petitioned for a restoration of the old system of the commission of "Vogts," he appointed the tyrannical and imperious Hermann Gessler, and Berenger of Landenberg, to perform jointly the duties of bailiff.

The administration of these officials was unspeakably oppressive to a people who had long looked upon themselves as freemen. Heavy taxes were imposed, and the funds raised were applied to the construction of strongholds and the maintenance of garrisons of soldiery. A pride and insolence of demeanour marked all the actions of the tyrants: their display of arrogance contributed perhaps as much as their actual oppression to excite that spirit of rebellion which resulted in a general revolution. At Altorf, Gessler is said to have set a hat upon a pole, and to have compelled all passers-by to do it reverence as symbolical of the Austrian supremacy. Although this comparatively trivial act was among the more immediate exciting causes of the outbreak, there were not wanting instances of diabolical cruelty to arouse individual emotions of indignation and revenge. It is recorded of Berenger of Landenberg, that he caused the eyes of an old man to be put out because of his refusal to reveal the hiding-place of his son, who, by some trifling offence and resistance to the officials of the vogt, had rendered himself an object of vengeance. This young man, known as Arnold of the Melchthal, and Walter Furst, of Uri, were the first to whom the originator of the Swiss revolt, Werner Stauffacher, revealed his plans and hopes. Cautiously extending information of their intentions to their most trust-worthy associates, this illustrious trio met from time to time by night, and with great secresy, to consult with their handful of confederates. On the 11th of November, 1307, each brought with him ten companions to the place of meeting, and the little assembly engaged by a solemn oath to devote themselves to a restoration of the ancient franchises and privileges of their country.

Among the company was one whose name has been ever associated with the history of Swiss independence, and whose adventures

have furnished a favourite theme for legend and romance. The traditions concerning William Tell, and the part taken by him in freeing Switzerland from the Austrian yoke, have been discredited by several modern historians, some of whom even deny that sufficient evidence can be adduced that such a person ever existed. The minuteness of detail given in the popular tale of his achievements may excite incredulity, but, making due allowance for exaggeration and poetic license in the metrical legends by which they have been perpetuated, there seems no sufficient reason for considering the whole account as fictitious. "It is far from being a necessary consequence (as is very justly observed in Coxe's Travels), that because the authenticity of the story concerning the apple is liable to some doubts, *therefore* the whole tradition relating to Tell is fabulous. Neither is it a proof against the reality of a fact that it is not mentioned by contemporary historians. The general history of William Tell is repeatedly celebrated in old German songs, so remarkable for their ancient dialect and simplicity, as almost to raise the deeds they celebrate above all reasonable suspicion: to this may be added the constant tradition of the country, together with two chapels erected some centuries ago in memory of his exploits."*

According to the account ordinarily received, Tell was arrested by Gessler's officials for refusing to comply with the orders relative to the hat. His proud spirit could not brook the degrading expression of abject servility, and rather than submit he chose to brave the fury of the vogt. Gessler had gained some intelligence of an intended uprising, and hoped by promises or threats to extort further information from his prisoner. Failing in this attempt, a fit of tyrannical caprice led him to promise Tell his life if with an arrow he would hit an apple placed upon the head of his son, from a distance so great as to render the feat exceedingly difficult, even were no responsibility attendant upon the archer's skill and steadiness of nerve.

Tell was successful, but the tyrant was unsatisfied that he should escape so easily, and observing yet another arrow in his possession, inquired for what purpose he carried it. In a fit of unrestrainable indignation Tell replied, "Vogt, had I shot my child, the second shaft was for thee; and be sure I should not have missed my mark a second time." The consequence of this rash speech was, that Gessler took him on board a boat to transport him across the lake to a prison in Schwytz. As the story goes, a great storm coming on, the company

* Appendix to the History of Switzerland, in Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopædia.

were in imminent danger, and Gessler was obliged to have Tell unfettered, and to entrust the helm to his charge, as his strength and skill in the management of a boat were well known. Where a small ledge of rock, still pointed out as "Tell's platform," presented the only landing-place for an extent of several miles, the steersman succeeded in leaping on shore and effecting his escape. "The vogt also escaped the storm, but only to meet a fate more signal from Tell's bow in the narrow pass near Kussnacht. * * These occurrences marked the close of 1307."

With the opening of the following year the insurrection broke out. On New-year's eve the castle of Rotzberg, in Nidwalden, was taken by stratagem and assault; a number of other imperial fortresses speedily shared the same fate, and the body of the people, nobles as well as free commoners and vassals, eagerly joined in the revolution. The three "forest cantons," by their representatives, formed a new league for mutual defence and resistance to Austrian usurpation.

The Emperor Albert, in great indignation at the revolt, prohibited all intercourse with the disaffected cantons, and commenced preparation for their reduction. In the following May he was murdered by his own nephew, John, assisted by a few confederates. John was a son of the deceased Duke Rudolph: his bitter enmity against his uncle arose from various slights and continued neglect. Albert was passing from his castle at Baden to Rheinfelden, and on the route, having separated a moment from his company, was set upon by the assassins, who "fell upon him and murdered him in the face of open day, and left him to die in the lap of a poor woman on the spot."

His daughter Agnes, queen of Hungary, and the new emperor, Henry VII., pursued a course of the most sanguinary vengeance towards all the connections of those implicated in this transaction. An almost incredible number of innocent persons were massacred without a shadow of proof that they were concerned in the murder of the emperor. Henry, during his brief reign, so far showed favour to the revolted cantons as to acknowledge their independence of Austria, as distinct from the empire.

During the succeeding reign the invasion of Switzerland by Duke Leopold, with an apparently overwhelming force, gave brilliant opportunity for a display of native valour and patriotism. In the bloody battle of Morgarten, the Schwytzers gained a complete victory over the Austrians. Among the slain was Berenger of Landenberg, the former partner of Gessler.

The confederate cantons were successful in maintaining their independence of Austria, and that power, in 1318, was content to conclude a treaty of armistice. The peace continued until the Swiss were called upon to aid the empire in the war against Austria in 1323. It was again renewed in 1326. Still acknowledging a subordination to the empire, the free cantons lent their assistance to the emperor in his Italian expedition, and thereby subjected themselves to excommunication. The bold and independent foresters were little moved by the papal sentence, and gave the clergy their choice, either to continue their clerical duties, regardless of the Pope's prohibition, or to leave the country. The spirit evinced by the populace in resisting the tyranny of the church, and the violent character of the times, appears from various incidents which occurred shortly after the issuing of that terrible decree, which, by the power of superstition, so often overspread whole countries with gloom and terror. At Basle, a legate of the Pope was seized and drowned for presuming to affix the bull of excommunication to the church wall, and the act is said to have met with general approbation. The clergy of Zurich, yielding obedience to their spiritual head, were expelled from the town, and no regular services, other than those performed by the barefooted friars, were held for a period of eighteen years. In 1332, Lucerne was united with the independent confederacy. Twenty years later, by the addition of Berne, Zurich, Zug, and Glarus, the number of towns and provinces included in the league was increased to eight; a number neither increased nor diminished for more than a century.

The year 1386 was memorable for the invasion of Switzerland by Duke Leopold III. of Austria. The principal cause of offence was the alleged extension of the authority and protection of the confederacy over places subject to Austrian claims. Swearing that "by God's assistance," he would "dissever that insulting league of the Swiss, the source of so much unrighteous warfare," the duke marched into the country with a body of chosen troops. As an insolent expression of contempt and menace, quantities of ropes and cords were ostentatiously displayed, for the avowed purpose of hanging those of the Swiss who should be taken captives.

On the 9th of July the invaders encountered the army of the confederation on its march from Zurich. Near Sempach, a town in the canton of Lucerne, a most decisive battle was fought, in which the Austrians were utterly routed and driven off, with the loss of six hundred of their nobility, of various ranks, and two thousand

common soldiers. The duke himself perished, fighting bravely to the last. The Swiss lost but two hundred men. In this battle the tide of success was first turned by the self-devotion of Arnold of Winkelried, a knight of Unterwalden. The van of the Austrian army consisted of a body of knights and nobles, who had dismounted from their horses, and with their long spears opposed an apparently impenetrable line. The Swiss, shielded only by rude bucklers, made several desperate but unavailing attempts to break the ranks of the invaders. Many of their bravest leaders had fallen, when Arnold, resolving to sacrifice himself for his country, called out, "I will make way for you, confederates—provide for my wife and children—honour my race!" and rushed upon the spears of the enemy. Gathering in his arms a number of the weapons directed against him, he fell forward, and his companions poured through the breach over his body with resistless impetuosity. The heavy defensive armour which had so effectually protected the Austrian troops from the missiles and swords of the enemy, while they could maintain their order, only encumbered and oppressed them in the confused melee which ensued. The Swiss bore off in triumph fifteen banners as memorials of their victory.

CHAPTER III.

CONTINUED WAR WITH AUSTRIA.—VICTORY OF NAEFELS.—CIVIL WAR IN SWITZERLAND.—INVASION BY CHARLES OF BURGUNDY.—SWISS MERCENARIES.—COVENANT OF STANTZ.—SWABIAN WAR.—THE REFORMATION, AND THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.—FORMATION OF THE PRESENT HELVETIC REPUBLIC.

LEOPOLD IV., after some vain attempts to carry out the designs of his predecessor, was content to conclude a truce with the Swiss. It was at this time, (1387,) according to many historians, that the confederate cantons became, in effect, independent of the German empire. Towards Austria the bitterest and most irreconcilable hatred was still borne by the free Swiss. "They could not hear the name of that house without exasperation. Whoever spoke well of Austria was regarded as an enemy—whoever should have adorned his hat

with peacock's feathers, the ducal ensign, would have lost his life by the fury of the people. It is recorded that no peacock was permitted in all Switzerland; and *Peacock's Tail* became the most offensive of all nicknames." Upon a renewal of hostilities the patriots were again triumphant over enormously superior forces of the enemy. The victory at Naefels, in April, 1388, proved as disastrous to the Austrians as that of Sempach. Defeated, and in utter disorder, the fugitives were crowding over the bridge at Wesen, when the frail structure gave way, and precipitated them into the water. Three thousand privates and nearly two hundred knights are said to have fallen in the engagement, or to have perished in the attempt to escape by flight. Thus terminated the hopes of Austria for the establish ment of her power in Switzerland. A peace for seven years was negotiated, which was afterwards renewed for twenty, and, in 1412, for fifty years.

At the last-mentioned period the Austrian duke, Frederick, was so fully satisfied of the determined resolution and patriotism of the Swiss, and had so disastrously experienced the power of the free cantons, that he was eager to form a treaty with them, although they would come to terms only upon the cession of all territory conquered by them or their allies.

In 1436, certain disputes arose between Zurich and the cantons of Schwytz and Glarus, which eventuated in a desolating civil war. Zurich entered into a league with Austria, upon which all the other members of the confederacy united against the coalition. After several years of hostilities, the old league was renewed.

During the reign of Louis XI. of France, former friendly alliances with Switzerland were solemnly ratified by that monarch, who lent his aid to the cantons, as heretofore related, upon the occasion of the invasion by Charles of Burgundy. The terrible battles of Granson and Morat, fought in 1476, gave proof that the courage and patriotism of the hardy mountaineers were as active as in the earlier days of their struggle for independence. At the last and decisive battle, fifteen thousand of Charles' troops are said to have been slain in the engagement or during their flight, and an untold number perished in the lake and the neighbouring marshes. "The ossuary at Morat, which received the bones of the slain Burgundians, exhibited the following inscription, till its destruction by the French, in 1798:—*Deo Opt. Max. Caroli inclyti et fortissimi Ducis Burgundiæ, exercitus, Muratum obsidiens, Hoc sui monumentum reliquit. M.CCCC.LXXVII.*"

From the period of Charles' defeat and death at Nancy, the soldiers of Switzerland enjoyed the highest reputation throughout Europe. Unfortunately for the welfare of the confederacy, this military renown stimulated the neighbouring powers to seek the services of Swiss adventurers in their private quarrels. The consequence was the decline of the old enthusiastic spirit of patriotism, and the prevalence of a reckless thirst for military glory, and for the wealth to be obtained by pay and plunder in foreign wars. An arrogant and menacing tone was assumed by the cantons in their intercourse with other states and kingdoms: upon some slight cause of quarrel the canton of Uri attacked the Milanese, and compelled them to purchase peace by an abandonment of certain territorial claims, and the payment of a sum in money.

Internal dissensions threatened the very existence of the Union. During a stormy session of the diet, in 1481, a noted recluse, named Nicolas of the Flue, made his appearance in the council-hall, and eloquently set forth the glorious successes which had attended the united efforts of the cantons, and the disaster and ruin that must ensue if their interests should be separated. Such was the effect of his exhortation, that all difficulties were immediately smoothed over, and the celebrated "covenant of Stantz" was entered into, by which the federal relation of the cantons was, for the first time, distinctly settled and defined.

About the close of the fifteenth century, the aid of Swiss troops was purchased by France in her war with the empire, and thus the confederacy became involved in hostilities with that immense power. In the Swabian war, which ensued, the brave mountaineers were as successful as in former days in repelling their old enemies the Austrians. Finding that nothing could be effected in Switzerland, the emperor was ready to conclude a peace with the united cantons, confirming them in all their conquests and possessions. No attempt was afterwards made to enforce a union of the confederacy with the German empire.

From this period the political affairs of Switzerland and her military exploits are too closely interwoven with the history of other nations of the continent to permit a connected narration of her history without extending the subject far beyond its appropriate limits, or without a useless repetition of events elsewhere chronicled. The memorable campaigns in Italy, in which mere mercenary considerations guided the conduct of the Swiss in their connection with the

French, with the emperor, or with the Italians, served to keep alive the martial character of the nation, while, at the same time, they demoralized the people and weakened the bond of the federal union.

The most important and interesting topic connected with the history of Switzerland, as with every other portion of Central Europe during the sixteenth century, is the rise and progress of the Reformation. One of the earliest and most influential advocates of Protestantism in Switzerland was Ulrich Zwingli, parish priest of Einsiedlen. He opposed the infamous sale of indulgences with great power and effect. A few years later, the still more celebrated John Calvin was foremost in the work of reform at Geneva, and acquired an influence and authority little inferior to that before enjoyed by the dignitaries of the Catholic Church.

During the Thirty Years' War, the policy of the united cantons was generally neutral, and as their territory presented little temptations to the contending parties, it was preserved, for the most part, inviolate. At the conclusion of the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, by which that long and bloody war was ended, the claims of Switzerland, so long maintained by force, were, for the first time, deliberately and formally acknowledged by the German empire, and the confederate cantons were declared free and independent. Although placed by this important treaty upon an equal footing with the other European states, the condition of the Swiss confederacy was by no means prosperous for many years subsequent to the peace. Insurrections of the peasantry, jealousy between the towns and provinces, and interminable religious controversies, still continued to disturb the tranquillity of the country.

Switzerland, from its central position among jealous and conflicting powerful states, has been, during several centuries, occasionally exposed to the march of hostile armies; and the magnificent scenes which it every where presents have received fresh interest from the encounters of German, Russian and French battalions, amid passes where the difficulties of nature and the terrors of climate added immeasurably to the horrors of warfare. From the time of Hannibal, it has always been considered one of the most dangerous and difficult feats of military enterprise to conduct an army safely through the Alps—and the losses of Suwarrow, Macdonald, and other renowned generals, sufficiently attest the formidable nature of the undertaking.

The effect of the French revolution was to create a great ferment

throughout the country, and with the growing power of Napoleon, Switzerland became a mere dependency of France. In 1798, the old league of confederation, which had so long united the ancient provinces, was forcibly dissolved, and all Switzerland, after a short but unavailing resistance on the part of the inhabitants of Uri, Schwytz, and others of the older cantons, was formed into a new state, termed the Helvetic Republic. It now consists of twenty-two cantons, viz: Aargau, Appenzell, Basle, Berne, Freiburg, St. Gall, Geneva, Glarus, Grisons, Luzerne, Neuchatel, Schafhausen, Schweitz, Soleure, Tesino, Thurgau, Unterwalden, Uri, Valais, Vaud, Zug, and Zurich.

The Helvetic Republic has long been an object of jealousy to the arbitrary governments by which it is surrounded—a jealousy so aggravated by the late convulsions of Europe, and so menacing in its nature, that Switzerland looks eagerly for assistance to the friends of liberty throughout the world in an anticipated struggle for her freedom. The late treaty of alliance with our country (though simply commercial) has been received with general sympathy and enthusiasm. With a population of less than two millions and a half, it would seem that Switzerland must speedily succumb to any effort of the greater powers for her political destruction; but the battle is not always to the strong, and any attempt upon her nationality may yet be answered by a second Sempach or Morat.

PORTUGAL.

CHAPTER I.

ANCIENT HISTORY.—MARITIME ENTERPRISE AND DISCOVERIES.—CIRCUMNAVIGATION OF AFRICA.—PORTUGUESE COLONIES IN INDIA.—EXPEDITION OF SEBASTIAN AGAINST THE MOORS.—HIS DEFEAT AT ALCACARQUIVER.

THIS country, the Lusitania of the ancients, was invaded by the Romans, B. C. 148. The struggle for its conquest, with some intervals, was protracted for more than a hundred years; but, in common with the whole Spanish peninsula, a little before the Christian era, it was forcibly subjected to the sway of the empire. The Visigoths included it in their conquests, and after them, the Moors, who, in the eighth century, gained possession of nearly all the great south-western peninsula. As the power of the Christians revived, the Mahometans were gradually expelled from their possessions; and, about the middle of the eleventh century, Ferdinand of Castile wrested from them a considerable part of Portugal.

At the close of the same century, Henry of Burgundy, who married the daughter of the Spanish King Alphonso, received with her a portion of the country, erected into the earldom of Portucalia,* whence the present appellation of the country. Further victories over the Moors, under his son Alphonso, increased the limits of the principality, and elevated it into the dignity of a kingdom. Private wars, feuds, and deadly revenges, both with Christian and Saracen neighbours, present little of interest until the commencement of the fifteenth century, the famous epoch of Portuguese discovery.

The names of John I. and his enterprising son Prince Henry, will always be celebrated as the earliest and most enlightened promoters

* Derived from *Portus Cale*, the ancient name of Oporto.

of maritime enterprise. The first of these sovereigns was a son of Pedro the Cruel and the beautiful Inez de Castro, whose melancholy fate, with the fierce retribution visited upon her murderers by her bereaved husband, forms such a romantic episode in Portuguese history. The marriage of Pedro with Inez was not generally considered legitimate, but their son John was proclaimed king in 1385, in accordance with the popular wishes, to the exclusion of other claimants.

After establishing his power in Portugal, John's first attention was turned to an invasion of the Moorish provinces in Africa, where he gained brilliant but unprofitable victories, and obtained possession of Ceuta in the kingdom of Fez. His third son, Henry, grand master of the "Knights of Christ," in pursuance of the principles of his order, which bound him to continual warfare against Mahometanism, devoted himself to the formation of plans for more extended conquest and conversion than those in which he had previously been engaged with his father, in Mauritania.

By intercourse with mariners and geographers, he acquired an ardent desire for exploration and discovery, at first only ancillary to his projects for the forcible extension of Christianity, but afterwards indulged from more enlightened and praiseworthy motives. From the harbour of Sagres, founded and patronized by himself, Henry sent out vessels to follow the African coast to the southward. He had convinced himself of the possibility of the circumnavigation of Africa, notwithstanding the opinion, handed down from the earliest times, that the intensity of the heat in the equatorial regions must preclude the possibility of passing them. Aided by the king, whom he had led to share his enthusiasm, Henry fitted out various expeditions, and the discovery of the Azores, the Cape de Verd, and other islands, rewarded the enterprise. None of the vessels, however, were able to reach the equator, the nearest approach to it being within about three degrees. During the life of John I., the only important settlement resulting from these voyages and explorations was that upon the island of Madeira, commenced in 1419.

For more than half a century from these memorable undertakings, the principal noticeable events in Portuguese history are connected with the interminable hostilities with the Moors. Under John II., the discoveries upon the African coast were rendered exceedingly profitable. A trading fort was established upon the coast of Guinea, and an amount of treasure in gold and ivory was secured, which added greatly to the national resources. It was the policy of

the king of Portugal to monopolize this traffic, and representations were generally circulated, exaggerating the difficulties and dangers of the voyage. Threats and violence were resorted to, to prevent the Portuguese pilots from lending their services to any other nation, and by negotiation with England, the fitting out of an African expedition from that country was arrested.

In 1486, John commissioned two emissaries to visit India and to explore the eastern coast of Africa as preparatory to a new expedition of circumnavigation. One of these, Pedro de Covilhan, made his way as far south as Mozambique, and reported to the king that, as far as could be gathered from inquiry in that region, the continent terminated in a cape far to the southward. Encouraged by this information, John dispatched several squadrons down the coast. The country of Congo was visited, and intercourse was established with the natives. In the following year (1487) the survey of the western coast was completed, and Bartholomew Diaz, an enterprising and experienced navigator, succeeded in reaching the stormy cape. His voyage occupied a year and a half: without having passed the promontory, he returned to Portugal to give an account of his discovery. The king, now sanguine in the expectation of reaching India by sea, changed the name of "Cabo tormentoso," bestowed by Diaz upon the extremity of Africa, to that of "Cabo de Bona Esperanza," or Cape of Good Hope. The glory of consummating the long-cherished project was, however, reserved for John's successor, Manuel. In the month of July, 1497, five vessels, commanded by the celebrated Vasco de Gama, were dispatched from Lisbon for the purpose of doubling the cape and proceeding to India.

The perseverance and courage of this great admiral, in braving the storms of an unknown sea, in quelling mutinies, and encouraging the broken down and dispirited crews of his squadron, are comparable only with what is recorded of the still more famous discoverer of the Western World. It was not until the 20th of November that the little fleet doubled the cape. Pursuing his adventurous voyage, Vasco de Gama continued his course to India, stopping at various places on the coast of Africa, and holding intercourse with the natives. At Calicut, on the coast of Malabar, he was surprised to find many traders and merchants from the Barbary States. These Moors, jealous at the prospect of losing their profitable monopoly of traffic, did their utmost to prejudice the native sovereign against the Portuguese. Their intrigues were successful; the voyagers nar-

rowly escaped destruction; and, finding their number too small to effect any forcible occupation, or to inspire respect for their sovereign's power, they set sail homeward. The cape was doubled in April, 1499, and, in the ensuing September, the fleet reached Lisbon.

Exulting in his success, and hopeful of establishing a profitable traffic with the East, Don Manuel fitted out thirteen ships, in the following year, to follow up the discoveries of Gama. The command was entrusted to Pedro Alvarez Cabral. A diversion from its intended course, caused by foul weather upon the African coast, threw the fleet so far westward, that land was made at the eastern extremity of Brazil. This chance discovery, had it occurred a few years sooner, would have given Portugal the honour of first making known to the world the existence of the Western Continent. Taking possession of the coast, and dispatching one of his vessels homeward, with intelligence of his discovery, Pedro Alvarez continued his course to India. Arriving at Calicut, the Portuguese at first experienced good treatment at the hands of the inhabitants, but the Moors a second time excited a conspiracy, which resulted in the massacre of fifty of the Christians. The admiral had sufficient force with him to punish this treachery by the destruction of the native fleet, with a portion of the city, which he bombarded. At Cochin friendly communication was held with the native governor, with whom and with the king of Cananor, an alliance was cemented in the name of the sovereign of Portugal. Trading factories were established, and, with a valuable freight of the choice productions of the East, the fleet returned to Europe.

The effect of the Portuguese successes in India was to excite universal indignation among the Mahometans. The Sultan of Egypt sent threatening messages to the Pope, announcing his intention of retaliating by the destruction of all Christians throughout his dominions. These menaces, even combined with the expostulations of the Holy Father, had little effect upon Manuel; he continued to extend his Indian colony, and to strengthen and secure its position by forts and additional forces of troops. Under the first governor, Almeida, the attacks of the Mahometans were most successfully repelled, and his successor, Albuquerque, signalized himself by an immense extension of his sovereign's dominions in the East. Between the time of his accession, in 1509, and that of his death, in 1515, he reduced the whole western coast of the peninsula; and dethroned the native king of Malacca, keeping possession of his

capital. The city of Goa, situated upon a small island on the Malabar coast, was made the capital of the Portuguese colonies in India.

Under Manuel's successor, John III., these colonies became more than ever wealthy and powerful. The settlement of Brazil still farther increased the resources of the government, and presented a new field for enterprise. At no period in her history has Portugal taken so proud a place among the nations of the world as during this reign. The commencement of her decline was the loss of most of her provinces in Northern Africa, provinces obtained at the expense of so many lives and so many years of desolating warfare.

Sebastian, a grandson of Manuel, attained his majority and came to the throne of Portugal in 1563. The religious training of the Jesuits, to whose care and instruction he had been committed during his minority, had so wrought upon his excitable and enthusiastic temperament, that his whole soul became bent upon a restoration of Christian power in the African states. Even his uncle, Philip II. of Spain, considered Sebastian's projects as visionary and ill-advised, and vainly strove to dissuade him from any attempt upon Africa. The representations of his own nobles and counsellors proved equally ineffectual. A quarrel between two rival claimants to the throne of Morocco, offered a convenient opportunity for a crusade among the Moors. Sebastian espoused the cause of Muley Mahomet, who was contending for the crown with his uncle, Muley Moloch, the rightful monarch. With about sixteen thousand men, the young sovereign of Portugal set sail for Africa, in June, 1578. A great number of hot-headed youths, from the noblest families in the land, accompanied him from a mere spirit of adventure and love of military glory.

On the 4th of August, a pitched battle was fought near Alcaçarquiver between the united forces of Mahomet and his Christian ally, and the immense army of the king of Morocco. This sovereign was at the time prostrated by illness, but his courage and nerve were superior to any bodily infirmity, and he advanced to the engagement, borne in a litter. The fierce attack of the Christians produced a temporary confusion in a portion of the Moorish army, and Muley Moloch, regardless of his own critical situation, mounted a horse for the purpose of rallying the fugitives. The exertion proved fatal to him; he again took his place in the litter, and bidding his attendants conceal his death, breathed his last while the battle was still raging. The Portuguese were utterly defeated; half their number perished, and nearly all the rest were taken prisoners.

The fate of Sebastian was never certainly ascertained; there seems to be little doubt that he fell in the conflict, but vague expectations that he would yet return to restore the ancient line of monarchs, were long after indulged by his subjects in Portugal.

Cardinal Henry, the youngest son of Manuel, regularly succeeded to the throne. At the close of his short and disturbed reign, in 1580, a stormy contention arose between various claimants of the succession. Philip II. of Spain, was grandson of Manuel, by his mother's side, and being the most powerful of all who set up their pretensions to the vacant throne, he determined to annex Portugal to his extensive dominions. An army, under the command of the Duke of Alva, a leader no less renowned for his military skill and enterprise, than infamous for his cruelty, as Spanish viceroy in the Netherlands, was marched into the country, and with little difficulty reduced the whole kingdom.

CHAPTER II.

PORTUGAL SUBJECT TO SPAIN.—REVOLUTION, AND ELEVATION OF THE DUKE OF BRAGANZA.—DISTURBANCES IN SOUTH AMERICA.—JOSEPH I. AND HIS MINISTER THE MARQUIS OF POMBAL.—FRENCH OPERATIONS AGAINST PORTUGAL.—FLIGHT OF THE ROYAL FAMILY.—DON MIGUEL.—DON PEDRO.—DONNA MARIA II.

ALL the colonies of Portugal, in America, India, and Africa, and all her island settlements, with the solitary exception of that at the Azores, submitted to Spanish authority, and for sixty years Portugal and her possessions were subject to the rule of Philip and his successors, Philip the Third and Fourth. The Azores were forcibly reduced to submission, and the contumacy of the colonists was punished with savage cruelty. During this period of Spanish rule in Portugal, various ambitious adventurers assumed the character of Sebastian, and, claiming to have escaped from the Moors, advanced their pretensions to the crown of Portugal. One of these pretenders, by his personal resemblance to the deceased sovereign, and his re-

markable knowledge of Sebastian's diplomatic negotiations, excited great attention, and some historians have been unwilling to pronounce positively upon the truth of his claims. The report of his appearance excited a revolt in Portugal, but it was easily repressed, and the unfortunate adventurer, after being flogged through the streets of Naples by order of Lemos, the viceroy, was imprisoned, and perished in obscurity.

The prosperity of Portugal, under the sway of Philip IV. of Spain, was grievously on the decline. In Brazil, the Dutch had gained large possessions, and in India and China, the bold navigators and enterprising traders of Holland had put an end to the Portuguese monopoly of traffic. A general discontent with the government prevailed, and in December, 1640, an insurrection against the Spanish authorities resulted in the rëestablishment of the national independence. The Duke of Braganza (descended from a natural son of John I.) was placed upon the throne, under the title of John IV. of Portugal. His descendants, except for a brief interval, have ever since continued to occupy the throne.

The remaining Portuguese dependencies, with the exception of Ceuta, in Africa, hailed the elevation of John with exultation, and instantly deposed the Spanish viceroys by whom they were governed. Secure in the affections of his people, and countenanced by those European states who were engaged in hostilities with Spain and Austria, the new king of Portugal was soon firmly established in authority. Upon his death, in 1656, his two sons Alfonso and Pedro being minors, his queen, Louisa, received the administration of government during the non-age of the heir. Unfortunately for his kingdom, the bodily and mental powers of the prince had been greatly impaired by a paralytic attack in infancy.

The violence, vices, and capricious folly of Alfonso, eventuated in his deposition in 1667, and the elevation of his brother, Don Pedro to the throne. His son, John V., succeeded Pedro in 1706, and reigned until his death, in 1750. Since the revolution Portugal had lost most of her possessions in India, but she still maintained her hold upon an immense territory in Brazil. Vexatious disputes were carried on between Spain and Portugal relative to territorial rights upon the borders of their respective dominions in South America. In Paruguay, the society of the Jesuits had established what were termed "Reductions," for the instruction and civilization of the natives. At these localities great numbers of Indians were

collected, and their spiritual guides had acquired that wonderful ascendency over their minds which none but the Jesuits have ever been able to maintain among savages. Shortly before the death of John V., Spain had ceded to Portugal no less than seven of these Reductions, and the occupants were ordered to remove into Spanish territory. Indignant at being compelled to desert their improvements, and to begin anew the labors of effecting a settlement in the wilderness, the natives revolted, and thus drew down upon themselves sanguinary vengeance from both Spanish and Portuguese authorities.

The reign of Joseph I., who came to the throne of Portugal in 1750, was principally remarkable for the measures of his able, but despotic minister, Don Sebastian José de Carvalho e Mello, created, under Joseph, Marquis of Pombal. The grand efforts of this nobleman were directed to the advance of the internal resources of the kingdom, but the violent and high-handed means adopted in the furtherance of his designs, produced effects generally injurious. In 1755 occurred the memorable earthquake by which the city of Lisbon was laid in ruins. More than fifteen thousand persons were supposed to have been crushed by the falling buildings, or to have perished in the yawning chasms or fissures of the earth.

One of the most important acts of Pombal's administration was the complete overthrow of the order of the Jesuits throughout the Portuguese dominions. Many of the charges brought against the society appear to have been utterly unfounded, but its ascendency over the aboriginal population of the American colonies had awakened great jealousy on the part of the Portuguese government. The members of the fraternity were banished from Portugal; and those engaged in teaching and governing the Indians were violently removed from their establishments, and transported to European prisons. The result was the decay of civilization and the return of many of the natives to a savage life.

In consequence of the insanity of the succeeding sovereign, Maria I., her son, afterwards John VI., in 1794, assumed the administration of affairs. The refusal of Portugal to join in the continental system of Napoleon, and her alliance with England, involved her in the general war consequent on the French revolution. Her extended sea-coast offered convenient facilities for the introduction of English goods, the exclusion of which from most of the sea-ports of Europe, rendered a traffic in them exceedingly

profitable. The attention of France being elsewhere directed, this course was pursued for several years. In 1797, a formal demand was made upon Spain by the Republic, for a free passage for an army into Portugal. The news excited the greatest alarm in the latter country, and aid was solicited and obtained from England. A force of some forty thousand men was raised for resistance to the anticipated invasion; but the unexpected departure of Napoleon for Egypt rendered these extensive preparations unnecessary.

Upon his return and elevation to the rank of first consul, Spain was compelled to join with France in enforcing a compliance, on the part of Portugal, with the general system of non-intercourse with England. Utterly unable to resist such a combination, the weaker kingdom submitted, and obtained a withdrawal of the hostile troops by consenting to the demands of France, by the payment of a heavy sum in money, and by the cession of a portion of territory in South America.

No concessions could finally preserve Portugal from the grasp of Napoleon, when fairly established in the sovereignty of the empire. In 1807, a French army, under Junot, invaded the country. The prince-regent, seeing that resistance was hopeless, determined to transfer the seat of government to Brazil, until more prosperous times should restore him to his inheritance. With all the royal family, he set sail from Belem on the 29th of November. The company consisted of "the old insane queen, who had not been seen for sixteen years, and who appeared to have just recovered reason sufficient to feel the humiliation of the step she was compelled to take, of her sisters, of the princess of Brazil with her children, and of the prince himself. They were accompanied by all the ministers, and great numbers of nobles." The illustrious fugitives barely escaped falling into the hands of Junot, who immediately possessed himself of the vacant kingdom: he was shortly afterwards created duke of Abrantes by the emperor, and invested with the government of Portugal as imperial lieutenant.

The legitimate heir to the throne, John VI., returned to his country in 1821; but his eldest son, Don Pedro, who remained in Brazil, in the following year converted that province into an independent empire, such as it has since remained.

At the death of John VI., in 1826, his second son, Don Miguel, advanced pretensions to the throne, and in 1828 was proclaimed sovereign by the cortez. His bigotry, cruelty, and illiberality,

however, soon provoked powerful enemies; and Pedro, who in 1831 had been compelled to abdicate his Brazilian crown, resolved on an effort to gain the sovereignty. By English assistance he fitted out an expedition, and, after a short struggle, succeeded in expelling Miguel from the kingdom. He survived his success but a brief period, dying in 1834; but his daughter, Donna Maria II., the present sovereign of Portugal, was peaceably elevated to the throne.

Portugal is politically divided into six provinces upon the continent, and a seventh, comprising the Azores, or Western Islands. These latter constitute an integral portion of the kingdom, as distinct from its colonies: they contain a population of about two hundred and fifty thousand. The Portuguese colonial possessions, at present, consist of a few settlements upon the eastern and western coasts of Africa; of the Madeira, Cape de Verd, and other smaller islands lying off the coast of Guinea; of the ancient capital Goa, in India; of a portion of Timor, one of the East Indian islands; and of the town of Macao in China. The Portuguese received possession of this port during the period of their maritime superiority, as a reward for assistance rendered by them to the Chinese emperor, against the pirates of the coast. The civil administration of the town is shared between Portuguese and native officials.

ITALY.

CHAPTER I.

CONDITION OF ITALY SUBSEQUENT TO THE FALL OF THE ANCIENT ROMAN EMPIRE.—NORTHERN ITALY.—THE KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.—THE KINGDOM OF LOMBARDY AND VENICE. —THE FORMER VENETIAN REPUBLIC.

After the dethronement of Augustulus, and the destruction of the Western Roman empire, (A. D. 1476,) the victorious Odoacer, chief of the Heruli, assumed the title of King of Italy, and for fourteen years held possession of the country. In 490, Theodoric, the famous king of the Ostrogoths, by agreement with Zeno, emperor of the Eastern Roman empire, invaded Italy, defeated Odoacer in three battles, and was proclaimed as sovereign in his stead. At the death of the Gothic prince, in 526, the Emperor Justinian, anxious to recover the ancient seat of the empire, dispatched into Italy his generals Narses and the famous Belisarius, who, after a struggle of eighteen years, succeeded in wresting it from the invaders, and, for a brief period, rëuniting it to the empire. In the year 568, the Lombards, a powerful German tribe from the Elbe, invaded Northern Italy, and gained possession of that fertile region, since called, from the name of its new masters, Lombardy.

Other conquests followed, and Rome itself was only saved by the interference of the warlike Pepin, (the Short,) king of France, who, at the intercession of the Pope, repelled the German invaders, and compelled them to cede to his Holiness those territories which have formed the foundation of the states of the Church, and the origin of the temporal power of the Papal See. Lombardy, soon after, was conquered by Charlemagne, whose devotion to the Church increased the power of the pontificate yet farther. Sicily and Lower Italy remained provinces of the Eastern empire until 842, when that island

Italian Costumes

Italian Costumes

and Calabria fell for a time into the hands of the Saracens. Early in the tenth century, during the reign of Berengarius, the incursions of the Saracens, and of the rude and barbarous Hungarians, into Italy, had become so frequent and formidable, that the sovereign was compelled to issue general directions to the nobles of his realm, and to the wealthy ecclesiastical establishments, to fortify and protect their possessions independently. "Italy, in consequence, soon became covered with fortresses and castles; every portion of the country, relying for safety upon its own ability for defense, became divided into small isolated states. Each had its own militia, its own officers for their guidance, and its own magistrates for the preservation of public order. Hence the origin of the Italian communities."* The number and frequent political changes of the various principalities into which the Italian peninsula has, for many centuries, been divided, forbid any thing more than a general enumeration, and a brief survey of the fortunes of the most distinguished.

Upper Italy comprises the kingdom of Sardinia, the kingdom of Lombardy and Venice, and the duchies of Parma and Modena. The first and most important of these includes all the north-western portion of Italy, together with the island of Sardinia. The continental district was formerly governed by the dukes of Savoy, but, after the cession by Austria, in 1720, of the island of Sardinia to Victor Amadeus II., then the reigning duke, the title of king of Sardinia was assumed by the sovereign of the united provinces. The invasion by France, subsequent to the great revolution, resulted in the reduction of the whole kingdom, with the exception of its insular possessions. Upon the settlement of European affairs, at the fall of the emperor, the king of Sardinia was restored to his former dominions, and his kingdom received a further accession by an incorporation with the republic of Genoa. The unfortunate result of the struggle with Austria, in 1849, induced the reigning monarch, Charles Albert, to abdicate, and the succession devolved upon the present king, Victor Emanuel.

The kingdom of Lombardy and Venice forms a part of the Austrian empire. The sovereignty of that portion included in the ancient duchy of Milan formed one of the subjects of dispute between the Emperor Charles V. and Francis I. of France. It became subject to Philip II. of Spain, and remained annexed to the Spanish dominions until 1706, when Austria obtained possession of it. It was erected

* Greene's translation of Sforzosi's Compend of Italian History.

into a republic in 1797, only to be again restored to Austria upon the success of the allies against France.

The ancient and wonderful maritime republic of Venice, after an existence of twelve hundred years, succumbed before the victorious arms of Napoleon; and since his fall has been, with other Italian states, under the hated and tyrannical sway of Austria. Her origin and duration were alike remarkable.

"* * * * A few in fear,
Flying away from him whose boast it was*
That the grass grew not where his horse had trod,
Gave birth to Venice. Like the water-fowl,
They built their nests amid the ocean waves;
And where the sands were shifting, as the wind
Blew from the north, the south; where they that came
Had to make sure the ground they stood upon,
Rose, like an exhalation from the deep,
A vast metropolis, with glittering spires,
With theaters, basilicas adorned;
A scene of light and glory, a dominion
Which has endured the longest among men.

Through many an age in the mid sea she dwelt,
From her retreat calmly contemplating
The changes of the earth, herself unchanged.
Before her passed, as in an awful dream,
The mightiest of the mighty. What are these
Clothed in their purple? o'er the globe they fling
Their monstrous shadows; and while yet we speak,
Phantom-like vanish with a dreadful scream!
What—but the last that styled themselves the Cæsars,
* * * followed fast by shapes
As new and strange, Emperor, and King, and Czar,
And Soldan, each with a gigantic stride
Trampling on all the flourishing works of peace,
To make his greatness greater, and inscribe
His name in blood. * * among the rest,
Lo, one by one, passing continually,
Those who assume a sway beyond them all,
Men gray with age, each in a triple crown,
And in his tremulous hands grasping the keys
That can alone, as he would signify,
Unlock Heaven's gate."—ROGERS' *Italy*.

* Attila.

CHAPTER II.

CENTRAL ITALY.—THE GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY.—THE STATES OF THE CHURCH.—THE REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO.—SOUTHERN ITALY.—THE KINGDOM OF NAPLES, OR OF THE TWO SICILIES.

mmm

CENTRAL ITALY includes the grand duchy of Tuscany, the States of the Church, and the little republic of San Marino. The limits of Tuscany are nearly the same as those of the ancient Etruria. Foremost among the independent republics or principalities of which Tuscany consisted during the middle ages, stood the republic of Florence. For about three centuries the Florentine family of the Medici, renowned for their patronage of learning and the arts, occupied the first position in Tuscany. The title of Duke was first conferred by the Emperor Charles V. upon Alexander de Medici, in 1531. Siena, an integral portion of modern Tuscany, was, at that time, in possession of Spain, but was ceded to Alexander's successor, Cosmo I. In 1737, upon the extinction of the race of the Medici, Francis, the husband of Maria Theresa of Austria, became the sovereign of Tuscany.

In common with the neighboring Italian states, Tuscany fell into the power of the French early in the present century, but was restored, in 1814, to its hereditary sovereign, Ferdinand III. His son Leopold II., the present Grand Duke, succeeded him in 1824. Few countries in Europe can boast of a more brilliant array of celebrated artists and literati than those who have flourished in the various provinces of Tuscany. The capital, Florence, is rich in memorials of their industry and talent.

The States of the Church occupy the central portion of the peninsula, extending from the western to the eastern sea-coast, and are, at present, divided into twenty-one provinces. The temporal power of the Pope, once coëxtensive with the spread of Catholicism, is now restricted to the sovereignty of these comparatively feeble states.

The wonderful political and ecclesiastical career of the long succession of pontiffs who have filled the chair of St. Peter, presents a singular instance of the success of bold spiritual assumption over ignorant

and superstitious force. Their fierce and protracted contests with the imperial power of Germany, (briefly described in the account of that country,) in despite of temporary defeat and humiliation, usually resulted in an increase of the papal haughtiness and dictatorial power.

This disastrous conflict gave birth to two great parties in Italy, one of which, styled the Guelph faction, espoused the interests of the emperor, while the other, known as the party of the Ghibelines, was enlisted in behalf of the papal authority. The first of these derived its name "from several princes, called Guelphs, who, seconding the management of the pontifical court at the German diet after the death of the fifth Henry, caused the election to fall upon Lothario, duke of Saxony, to the exclusion of Frederic of Hohenstaufen, his nephew; and the Ghibelines received théirs from the castle of Geibeling, near Augsburg, belonging to the direct branch of the Augustuses."* For many years the northern states of Italy were distracted by the dissensions and civil wars of these two opposing factions, between which the bitterest enmity existed.

The power of disposing of crowns and sovereignties was arrogated in the most impudent, and, owing to the slavish mental subjection of Europe, often in the most successful manner. The spirited resistance of Philip IV. of France, early in the fourteenth century, gave the first check to this insolent and domineering spirit; the self-will, greediness, and impatience of Henry VIII. of England, struck a yet heavier blow at the papal supremacy; and the Great Reformation, commenced by Luther, which immediately followed, forever prostrated the European dictation so long endured from the Roman pontificate.

While the spiritual and civil liberties of mankind were strictly proscribed by the Popes, they still, by their munificent patronage of art and letters, greatly assisted in the advancement of taste and refinement. Genius and successful innovation (in every department except politics and theology) were most liberally encouraged and rewarded. The names of Petrarch, of Raphael, of Michael Angelo, and a host of other luminaries, will always attest the merits of the Papal See, in promoting the revival of art, of science, and of literature. The noted exception in the case of Galileo only illustrates the rule—an ecclesiastical dogma being found sufficient to outweigh the most noble and enfranchising discoveries which the genius of philosophy could effect.

* Greene's translation of Sforzosi's Compend of Italian History.

MURAT.

JOACHIM MURAT, Marshal of France and King of Naples, was born in humble life in 1767 at the little village of Bastide. In attempting to regain his throne, after the fall of Napoleon, he was taken on the coast of Calabria, and shot, October 13th, 1815, by order of the Neapolitan government.

"And thou, too, of the snow-white plume,
Whose realm denied thee even a tomb!
Better thou hadst fallen while leading
France o'er hosts of hirelings bleeding,
Than sold thyself to death and shame
For a meanly royal name.

* * * * *

Tnere, where death's brief pang was quickest,
Where the battle's wreck lay thickest,
Where the broken line enlarging,
Fell, or fled across the plain—
There, be sure, was Murat charging!
There he ne'er shall charge again."

FROM THE FRENCH.

The magnificent church of St. Peter's, "the most glorious structure that has ever been applied to the use of religion," yet remains the proudest monument of the power and resources of the Holy See. The erection of this wonderful edifice occupied the reigns and absorbed the spare revenues of seventeen successive Popes. The first stone was laid in 1506, by Julius II., and the front completed by Paul V. an hundred and fifteen years afterwards; yet even then it was not perfected, and immense sums have subsequently been lavished upon its accessaries and adornments. Two hundred and sixty-five years were requisite for its entire completion, and during that time nearly an hundred millions of dollars have been expended upon the work. The zealous Protestant, while viewing the magnificence of a structure with which none erected by his own church can compete, feels a certain satisfaction in the reflection that, to supply the requisite treasures, indulgences were vended, Luther was aroused, and the Great Reformation rolled in, and swept away the power and predominance of which this splendid structure is now but a memorial.

With an area of only thirty-two square miles, and a population of little over eight thousand, the republic of San Marino has maintained, by sufferance, an independent existence during a period of nearly fourteen centuries. It is completely encompassed by territory of the province of Urbino, one of the states of the Church. From the craggy mountain of Titano, which occupies the greater portion of the territory of the republic, its little capital has looked down undisturbed upon the changes and convulsions which have distracted the surrounding states and kingdoms. Secure in its poverty from the grasp of ambitious and avaricious conquerors, and revered for its antiquity, the protection of powerful states has ever been extended to preserve the integrity of its domains. It has been especially favored by the succession of Popes within whose territory it is located.

The origin of the state dates as far back as the fifth century, and, as may well be supposed, the present inhabitants reflect with no little pride upon the fact that theirs, although the smallest, is the oldest republic now existing in Europe. The first settlement formed upon the Monte Titano was commenced by a Sclavonian stone-mason, named Marinus or Marino, who came over with a great number of artisans and laborers to assist in the restoration of the Italian port of Rimini upon the Adriatic. During the "tenth persecution of the Christian Church," by the Emperor Diocletian, Marino made himself prominent in resistance to the imperial decrees, and afterwards retired

to lead the life of a recluse in the rugged district which still bears his name. He became noted for sanctity and devotion, and many of his Dalmatian countrymen, with others of his followers and admirers, collected about his hermitage, and laid the foundation of a future republic. In after-times his reputation for holiness, and the miracles said to have been performed at his tomb upon the summit of the mountain where he had dwelt, secured him a place in the calendar of saints.

Napoleon, in the midst of his brilliant successes in Italy, testified his reverence for the ancient republic, and his regard for its welfare, by an offer of additional territory, and by a present of four pieces of artillery. The commonwealth prudently declined the proposal to enlarge its domains, thus securing a continuance of favor from the surrounding states, when the power and influence of France were no longer felt in Italy. The government of San Marino is said to be in effect aristocratic, the council by which its affairs are administered consisting of the wealthiest and most influential inhabitants. The supreme authority is nominally, as guarantied by the ancient constitution, reserved to the "Arengo, or great council, in which every family shall be represented by one of its members." This truly democratic assembly has, in times of emergency, been called together by the primitive method of "ringing a great bell, whose tones can very well be heard all over the republic."

The beautiful kingdom of Naples, occupying the southern extremity of Italy, was, at a very early period, settled by Grecian colonists, who founded, among others, the famous cities of Crotona, Sybaris, and Naples—the latter of which is still the capital of Southern Italy. It was an important and favorite portion of the Roman empire; after the fall of which, it came successively under the sway of the Goths, the Greek emperors, and the invading Saracens. In the year 1016, and for some time afterwards, the roving warriors of Normandy flocked to this delightful region, expelled the Saracens, and extended their conquests over the greater part of Sicily and Lower Italy. Roger II. of Hauteville (their principal house) was crowned by the Pope as "King of the two Sicilies."

With the extinction of the male line of this family, it came by marriage under the imperial house of Hohenstaufen, with which it remained until the middle of the thirteenth century, when, by arms and the papal influence, Charles of Anjou (brother of Louis IX. of France,) gained possession of Lower Italy.

At the death of Joanna II., the last of this line, in 1442, it fell under the sway of Alphonso V., king of Sicily and Arragon; his natural son Ferdinand succeeded to the acquisition; and in 1503, Naples and Sicily were rëunited under a single sovereign. They continued to form a part of the Spanish dominions until 1714, when by treaty they were surrendered to Austria. Twenty years afterwards they were regained by Spain, and in 1759 were erected into an independent sovereignty under Ferdinand, a younger son of the royal family of that country. The kingdom of Naples, soon after the Great Revolution, was included by the French in their Italian conquests, and Napoleon, in 1806, bestowed the crown upon his brother Joseph. In 1808, the celebrated Murat, brother-in-law of Napoleon, was placed upon the throne, and by his enlightened and liberal administration became justly popular with his subjects. The brilliant and successful military career of this extraordinary man, and his melancholy fate, have been elsewhere described. In attempting, in emulation of Napoleon, with a few attendants to regain his kingdom, (which he had lost on the success of the allies,) he was captured, and suffered military execution by order of the contemptible Ferdinand, who had been restored by foreign arms to the throne.

Italy has had even more than its share of the political and revolutionary contests by which Europe, during the past few years, has been convulsed; and here, unfortunately, as elsewhere, the efforts of the people for the cause of freedom have been suppressed by foreign policy and foreign bayonets. Venice, after a resistance against her Austrian tyrants, which merited a better fate, has been reduced, rather by famine than by arms; her depopulated streets, and hastily-emigrating citizens, at the present moment, furnishing the best comment on the nature of that "paternal despotism" which has been so often lauded by the admirers of Austrian usurpation.

Naples and Sicily, by an ill-concerted and premature movement, have gained only a fresh accession of tyranny. The defeat of Sardinia, the forced abdication of her patriotic sovereign, and the reviving ascendency of Austria over the North of Italy, seem utterly to preclude the hope of a renewed or successful attempt for freedom in any of its ancient strongholds.

The fate of Rome has been more melancholy still. The accession of Pius IX. to the pontificate was hailed as the commencement of an era of reform and liberality. To a certain extent this prospect was realized; but the time-honored abuses of the papacy, sanctioned

by neighboring despotism, could not suddenly be swept away: the people, impatient, took redress into their own hands; and the head of the Catholic Church, but lately almost worshiped as a divinity, sought safety in flight, and assistance from foreign arms.

The utterly selfish and unprincipled action of France, in this emergency, has procured her no sympathy, except such as is awarded to successful violence. The government of a republic, which but yesterday owed its existence to a sudden revolution, lent its influence and its arms to suppress the most noble and hopeful struggle for freedom which Italy has ever made. The advocates of this armed interference have, indeed, attempted to justify it by pleading the necessity of anticipating Austria, and of maintaining the influence of France on the Italian Peninsula. Whether the motive were sympathy for despotism or a mere scramble for national power, the result has been the same.—Rome, after a defense worthy of the ancient republic, has been obliged to succumb to the artillery and bayonets of a republican army; her brave defenders are slain, in prison, or in exile; and the puerilities of the hierarchal sway, protected by the arms of foreigners, have once more ventured back into their ancient haunts, and brood over the Eternal City.

A

DESCRIPTION,

STATISTICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL,

OF THE

COUNTRIES OF EUROPE;

TO WHICH IS ADDED

ASIA AND AFRICA,

EMBRACING

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, SOIL AND CLIMATE, VEGETABLE AND MINERAL PRODUCTS, MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE, ARMY AND NAVY, MILITARY FORCE, PUBLIC DEBT, REVENUE, TAXATION, PUBLIC INSTRUCTIONS, ROADS AND CANALS, EMIGRATION, SHIPPING, DIFFERENT RACES, CRIMES, ARTS AND SCIENCES, STATE OF THE PEOPLE, ETC.

COMPILED FROM THE LATEST AUTHORITIES.

A

DESCRIPTION,

STATISTICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL,

OF THE

COUNTRIES OF EUROPE;

COMPILED FROM THE BEST AUTHORITIES.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE,

CONSISTS of the islands of Great Britain and Ireland, together with the smaller islands contiguous to them, and their dependencies in various parts of the world. The island of Great Britain is composed of England and Scotland, which, with Ireland, constitute the *United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.* These islands are situated in the North Atlantic Ocean, off the west shores of continental Europe, between 50° and 59° N. latitude, and 2° E. and 11° W. longitude. The greatest length of Great Britain N. and S. is about 580 miles, and the greatest breadth from E. to W. is about 367 miles. Owing to its very irregular shape, however, its breadth in most places is much less. Its area is estimated at 83,828 square miles; of which England contains 50,922, and Scotland 31,324, exclusive of its dependent islands.

Ireland lies to the west of Great Britain, between 51° 25′ and 6° and 11° W. longitude. Its greatest length is about 283 m. and its greatest breadth about 197 m., and it contains an area of 32,509 square miles.

The soil of the British islands is generally productive and well cultivated. A great variety of useful vegetables and fruits is raised in abundance. The climate is mild, equable, and healthy. To the excellence of the harbors, in connection with an insular situation, may, in a great measure, be attributed the naval superiority of

Great Britain. Her mineral riches are equal to those of any other country.

Mineral Products.—The average yearly value of the mineral products of Great Britain, consisting of silver, copper, tin, lead, iron, coal, salt, &c., is estimated at £20,500,000.

Population.—For a long time the progress of population was slow, but latterly it has increased with great rapidity, so that the entire population of the three islands amounts, at the present time, to at least 28,000,000.

Agriculture.—The cultivated lands are reckoned at 48,779,613 acres, and the uncultivated at 28,227,435. The annual value of the crops in England and Wales alone, has been estimated as follows :—

Wheat,	£30,875,000
Barley and Rye,	5,400,000
Oats and Beans,	16,875,000
Potatoes, Turnips, Clover, &c.,	13,125,000
	£66,275 000

The pasture land of England and Wales, estimated at 17,000,000 acres, yields an annual value in cattle, horses, sheep, wool, poultry, dairy produce, &c., of £59,500,000. The total yearly value of the land produce of Scotland amounts to £20,455,375, and of Ireland to about £44,500,000. Hence the aggregate value of the agricultural produce of the United Kingdom would be—

England,	£132,500,000
Scotland,	20,455;375
Ireland,	44,500,000
	£197,455,375

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Great Britain are most extensive and important. The following estimates are considered near the truth :—

YEARLY VALUE OF MANUFACTURES.

Cotton,	£35,000,000
Woolen,	22,000,000
Iron and hardware,	17,000,000
Watches, jewelry, &c.,	3,000,000
Leather,	13,500,000
Linen,	8,000,000
Silk,	10,000,000
Glass and earthenware,	4,250,000
Paper,	1,500,000
Hats,	2,400,000
TOTAL,	£116,650,000

Besides the preceding, there are other manufactures of great importance and value; such as spirit and beer, cabinet makers' goods, &c. Nearly 1,000,000 tons of iron are annually produced in England and Wales, and 120,000 tons in Scotland. The import of cotton exceeds 450,000,000 pounds.

Commerce.—The commerce of the British islands is of vast extent. The annual exports exceed in value £56,000,000, and the imports £54,000,000.

Shipping.—The number of vessels employed in commerce, amounts to over 27,000, carrying nearly 4,000,000 tons, and manned by more than 200,000 men. Besides these, there are about 800 steam vessels.

Internal Communication.—There is no other country in the world in which the means of internal communication are superior. The high roads are probably the best in Europe; no country is better supplied with canals, and within the past twenty years the construction of railroads has proceeded with unexampled enterprise, and has absorbed capital of immense value—London being the great center for no less than nine of the principal.

Government.—The government of the United Kingdom is of the kind called mixed, being partly monarchical, partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. The executive authority is vested in the sovereign, or, more properly, in the ministers chosen by the sovereign, while the legislative authority is shared by the sovereign, and the houses of Lords and Commons. The House of Lords is composed of certain dignified clergymen, and of noblemen whose dignity is hereditary, and who usually possess large fortunes. The number of members is about 450. The House of Commons, the predominating power of the state, consists of 658 representatives, chosen by electors, and though the sovereign is not, the ministers are, responsible to it, and to the other house, for all acts done by them in their public capacity. In theory, the House of Commons is chosen by, and is the exponent of, the wishes, feelings, and prejudices, of the mass of the people; but, practically, by far the greater part of the population has not, and has never had, any thing at all to do with the choice of the members. This is owing to the methods in which electors are qualified, and to various other circumstances which can not be detailed here, but which, out of a population of 28,000,000, allow the privilege of voting to only about 1,000,000 of persons. It seems highly probable, however, from recent occurrences, that

the people will not much longer endure the restriction of so important a privilege. The press is nominally free. It was in general made the instrument of the prejudices of the people; but owing to the great reductions taking place in the stamp department, many cheap publications and newspapers have been introduced, whereby the masses have a better opportunity of seeing into numerous abuses which they for years have been laboring under.

Army.—The British army consisted of about 140,000 men in 1848, but owing to the rupture between Turkey, France, England, and Russia, it must necessarily fluctuate. In 1853, it was 175,919 men. It is recruited by voluntary enlistments. The pay of privates varies from 1*s.* 9*d.* to 2*s.* per day, according to the length of their service, and the department of the service to which they belong. Pensions are granted for casualties in action, &c., and to soldiers discharged after certain periods of service.

In addition to the regular army, there is also the militia, the yeomanry, and the police. Since 1815, the former had not been embodied, but it has, within the last year, been called into requisition, and many have either volunteered or been drafted into the regular service. The number of enrolled militia amounts to about 80,000 men. The yeomanry is a kind of volunteer cavalry, of no great utility or importance. The police, however, constitutes a very efficient and valuable force, and is extensively employed in London and other towns in England, and particularly in Ireland.

Navy.—The naval service has long been the especial pride and boast of the nation. The navy is governed by a body of commissioners, called the Board of Admiralty, in the first lord of which the power is really vested. This board has the superintendence of every thing relating to the naval affairs. An officer of the navy is obliged to begin as a volunteer, serve as a midshipman for six years, and then pass an examination, before he can receive a commission as lieutenant. This commission, as well as all subsequent promotion, depends, however, entirely on the will or caprice of the Admiralty; so that in consequence of a private grudge, or some other trivial circumstance, the most deserving man may be for ever debarred from the rank which he merits. Sailors enter the navy by voluntary enlistment, but in cases of emergency impressment may be resorted to.

Public Debt.—The debt of the British government, principally contracted during the wars with America and France, amounts to

the enormous sum of nearly one thousand millions of pounds, or five thousand millions of dollars. More than half the total annual expenditure of the United Kingdom is required to defray the interest and the expense of managing this tremendous load of debt. Various schemes have been proposed at different times for paying it off; but the only true methods for so doing—namely, an increase of revenue, or a diminution of expense—seem to be alike impracticable.

COLONIES.

The colonies and foreign dependencies of Great Britain consist principally of the following: in North America, the two Canadas, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, Newfoundland, and Honduras; in the West Indies, the Bahama and Bermuda islands, Antigua, Barbadoes, Dominica, Jamaica, Montserrat, Grenada, Nevis, St. Kitt's, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Tobago, Tortola, Anguila, Trinidad; in South America, British Guiana; in other parts of the world, Gibraltar, Malta, Cape of Good Hope, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Ceylon, Mauritius, New South Wales, Van Dieman's Land, Western Australia, Heligoland, St. Helena. Nearly all these dominions are ruled by a governor, council, and assembly, or by a governor and the orders of the sovereign. It has been supposed by some that much of the wealth and power of the kingdom depends upon the possession of these distant colonies, but the better opinion seems to be that it would be greatly to the advantage of the people of Britain, if these colonies were left to themselves.

IRELAND.

The greater part of the surface of Ireland is a plain, interspersed with low hills. The principal river is the Shannon, 159 miles long from Lough Allen to Limerick, where it expands into an estuary of 45 miles, opening into the Atlantic. It is navigable through nearly its whole course. The lakes, or loughs, are numerous. The largest is Lough Neagh, in Ulster, which is about 17 miles long by 9 broad. The climate is more temperate and equable than that of most other

parts of Europe in the same latitude, its great defect being excess of humidity.

Mineral Products.—Coal is found in several parts of the island, but the amount, as well as the quality, is inferior, and nearly all the principal towns are supplied from England. As a substitute for coal, lignite and turf or peat are produced in various sections and in great quantities. Iron ore is found in all the localities of coal, and was largely manufactured as long as timber for fuel was abundant. Latterly, all efforts to carry on the manufacture have been not only unprofitable, but ruinous. There are copper and lead mines in Cork, Kerry, Wicklow, and other places. A great proportion of the copper ore is sent to Liverpool and Wales to be smelted. The total amount of this ore in 1843 was 17,471 tons, worth £106,078. Lead is more generally diffused than copper, but few of the mines are profitable. Gold and silver have also been found in considerable quantities, but all attempts to obtain these metals are now abandoned.

Political Divisions.—Ireland is now divided into the four provinces of Leinster, Munster, Ulster, and Connaught. These are subdivided into thirty-two counties, three hundred and sixteen baronies, and two thousand four hundred and twenty-two parishes. Besides the counties, are the eight small exempt jurisdictions of Dublin, Cork, Kilkenny, Limerick, Waterford, Carrickfergus, Drogheda, and Galway, the first five of which are called counties of cities, the remaining three, counties of towns.

Government.—The executive government is vested in the lord lieutenant, assisted by a privy council, appointed by the crown, and by a chief secretary, a member of the House of Commons. In the absence or vacancy of the lord lieutenant, his place is supplied by lord justices, who generally are the primate or the archbishop of Dublin, the lord chancellor, and the commander of the forces. Each county is in charge of a lieutenant, generally a peer, an indefinite number of deputy lieutenants and magistrates, who act gratuitously, and a salaried stipendiary magistrate, all appointed by the crown, during pleasure. The details of the execution of the laws are committed to the constabulary in the counties and the police in Dublin. The constabulary force consists of 11,000 men and officers, with 328 horses, and its maintenance in 1846 cost £492,881. The Dublin police consisted, in 1847, of 1,157 men, supported at an expense of £71,000, to which Parliament contributes

£33,000, and the rest is drawn from the people by taxes, rates, fines, fees, &c.

Representation.—The country is represented in the Imperial Parliament by 28 peers and 105 commoners; of which latter class 64 are representatives of the 32 counties, 2 of the University, 12 of the cities and towns of Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Waterford, Belfast, and Galway, and 27 of the boroughs. The number of electors in February, 1851, was 163,546—135,245 in the counties, and 28,301 in the cities and boroughs.

Ecclesiastical Divisions.—The numbers in the principal religious denominations, as ascertained by the commissioners of public instruction, in 1844, were:

Established Church,	852,064
Roman Catholics,	6,427,712
Presbyterians,	642,356
Other denominations,	21,808

Established Church.—For ecclesiastical purposes, the whole of Ireland is now divided into two provinces by a line drawn from the north of Dublin county, to the south of Galway bay, and is presided over by two archbishops and ten suffragan bishops, whose income amounts to £67,530, being an average of £5,627 to each. A board of ecclesiastical commissioners has charge of the revenues of certain suppressed bishoprics, and other church funds, to be applied by them to ecclesiastical purposes, amounting in 1846 to £118,674. The total yearly amount of tithe-rent charge, paid by the people to ecclesiastical persons for the maintenance of a church to which only one in ten of their number belong, amounts to over £401,000, or $2,000,000; and that paid to lay impropriators, to £81,659, or more than $400,000.

Roman Catholic Church.—The Catholic hierarchy consists of four archbishops and 23 bishops, nominated by the pope. The parochial clergy, who number about 2,000, are nominated by the bishop. The whole of the clergy are supported entirely by the voluntary subscriptions of their flocks, and the places of public worship are built by subscriptions. There are numerous monasteries and convents, the latter being supported by sums paid by those who take the vows in them, and by fees for the education of girls. The friars and nuns also devote themselves to the gratuitous education of poor children.

Presbyterians.—The Presbyterians are found chiefly in Ulster. They number about 642,000, and comprised, in 1840, 433 congregations, arranged under 35 presbyteries, governed by the general assembly. Besides these, there are other presbyterians, who dissent from the general assembly, and form synods of their own.

Other Denominations.—The number belonging to the methodist church is about 20,000, and there are few baptists.

Judicial Divisions.—The judicial establishment consists of the chancellor, the master of the rolls, four judges in each of the courts of queen's bench, common pleas, and exchequer, an assistant barrister for each county, a bankrupt court with two judges, two commissioners of the insolvents' court, the judges of the prerogative court and of the admiralty. The superior courts are held at Dublin; two judges hold assizes for criminal and civil pleas in each county, twice a year, for which purpose the county is divided into six circuits. Two of these judges also hold a general jail delivery in Dublin every six weeks. The total amount of yearly salary paid to the sixteen superior judges is £63,004, of which the chancelor receives £8,000 or nearly $40,000, and the average to each judge is nearly £4,000. In addition to this, the officers of the inferior courts, 113 in number, are paid £55,232, making an aggregate sum of 118,236, or nearly $600,000. Besides all this, there are 567 petty sessions courts, the average yearly amount of fees paid into which is more than £16,000; 34 county prisons, of which 27 are furnished with tread-mills, 10 city prisons, and 106 bridewells, the whole maintained at a yearly cost of £83,500.

Military Divisions.—The staff of Ireland consists of the departments of commander of the forces, adjutant general, and quartermaster general; under which are those of the judge-advocate general and medical director general. The number of troops stationed in the country in 1849 was 19,894.

Population, &c.—The original inhabitants were the Celts, who have been intermingled in the south with the Milesian tribes from Spain; in the maritime portions of the east and south-east, with the Danes, who were followed by the Anglo-Normans; and in the north with the Scotch, who settled there in great numbers in the reign of James I. Some French emigrants subsequently settled in Dublin and Queen's county, and some Germans in Tipperary. The number of inhabitants in 1841 was 8,175,124, being an increase of five per cent. during the ten previous years. The number occupied in

agriculture in the same year was 5,406,743; in manufactures or trades, 1,953,688; in other pursuits, 813,535. In 1851 the population amounted to 6,520,314, where a falling off of 1,513,294 was observable.

It is estimated that about 1,300,000 emigrants left Ireland in the ten years, from the middle of 1841 to the middle of 1851, or 130,000 average annually. In so far as the number for 1852 was about 30,000 less than in 1851, we may infer that the Irish had begun to see an improvement in their unfortunate country. One of the most striking phenomena presented by the amount of money sent back to Ireland to help these emigrants to this country shows; 1848, £460,000; 1849, £540,000; 1850, £957,000; 1851, £990,000; 1852, £1,404,000, amounting in the aggregate to £4 each emigrant. America, therefore, and not Ireland, practically pays the expenses of Irish emigration.

Besides the above, much the largest proportion of emigrants ship from Liverpool and other British ports. Large numbers also emigrate to various parts of Great Britain in quest of employment. In 1841, these amounted to 57,651.

Education.—The institutions for communicating instruction are, the University of Trinity College, Dublin, the Colleges of St. Patrick, Maynooth, Belfast, Stackallan, Carlow, and St. Jarlath's, Tuam; endowed classical schools, endowed mercantile schools, parochial schools, national education schools, Kildare-place schools, church education schools, Christian Brothers' schools, and Sunday schools. With all this apparatus of schools, it appears that in 1841 the number of persons in Ireland, of five years old and upwards, who could read and write, was only 1,966,156; of those who could read, only 1,413,377; of those who could neither read nor write, 3,766,066; and there were in attendance on the schools only 502,950—a proportion of somewhat less than one to sixteen of the population. The national schools, aided by parliamentary grants in 1851 of £164,577, amounted in 1852 to 4,795, attended by 524,401 children.

Crime.—The number of criminal cases before the courts, in 1846, was 18,492; of convictions 8,639; the number of convictions for petty offenses was 16,695, and for drunkenness 23,282; a proportion of convictions to the population of 1 to 946. The number of committals in 1846 shows an increase in the various kinds of crime of from 5 to 300 per cent. over the preceding year. Thus, under the head of "murder," there has been an increase of 6·52 per cent.;

"attempts to murder," 63 per cent.; "burglary," 17·97 per cent.; "robbery," 55·38 per cent.; "robbery of arms," 105·5 per cent.; "counterfeiting gold and silver coin," 300 per cent., &c. In the committals for drunkenness an increase of 5·46 per cent.

Poor Law.—The total expenditure of the year ending December 31, 1846, for the maintenance of 129 workhouses, was £435,001; the number of paupers relieved in them, 243,933. The pressure of poverty and distress was so great in 1846 and 1847 that the workhouses were overstocked, the seeds of contagious diseases were introduced, and spread among the inmates and officers. From January to May, 1848, out of 150 officers, including clerks, masters, medical men, and chaplains, who were attacked by diseases contracted in the discharge of their duties, 54 died; of the wretched inmates, from April, 1846, to April, 1847, 40,150 perished—15,405 in March and the two first weeks of April of the latter year. What would have been the state of the wretched poor during the famine years had not a poor law existed it is fearful to contemplate.

Taxation.—The whole amount annually paid by the Irish people in local taxes for the support of the government varies little from £2,000,000; while the whole revenue, extracted from the customs, excise, stamps, &c., amounts to about £4,700,000. Besides all this, the amount yearly drawn from the people in tithes and other impositions, for the income of the established church alone, is at least £725,000.

Inland Communications.—The main roads of Ireland are generally under the care of the grand juries of the respective counties, and are in good condition. The main lines of canal navigation are the Grand, Royal, and Ulster canals. The Grand Canal runs from Dublin to Shannon harbor; its main trunk is 95 miles long, the branches 66. The Royal Canal extends from the north of Dublin to Tarmonbarry on the Shannon, and is 92 miles long. The length of the Ulster Canal is 48 miles. The railroads in actual operation on December 1, 1847, were—The Dublin, Kingstown, and Dalkey line, 7¾ miles; the Ulster line, from Belfast, by Lisburn, Moira, and Lurgan, to Portadown, 25 miles; the Dublin and Drogheda line, 31½ miles; the Londonderry and Enniskillen, as far as Strabane, 15 miles; the Great Southern and Western Railroad, from Dublin through Kildare and Maryborough to Roscrea, 92¾ miles; the Middlesex Great Western Railway, from Dublin to the hill of Down, 33 miles. The number of miles of railroad completed in

1852 was 700, and over 100 miles in course of construction. The total number of miles authorized by the legislature to be constructed up to June 1851 was 1,517.

Agriculture.—That the soil of Ireland is eminently well fitted for tillage, appears from the evidence of every intelligent person qualified to judge. "The luxuriance of the pastures," says McCulloch, "and the heavy crop of oats that are every where raised, even with the most wretched cultivation, attest its extraordinary fertility." The whole quantity of arable land is stated, in the census of 1841, at 13,464,300 acres, and of uncultivated land at 6,295,735.

The tenure of landed property varies considerably. Formerly the custom prevailed of granting leases in perpetuity, for 999 years, or for lives, renewable for ever, with or without renewal fine. Hence some of the owners of very large estates receive a very small share of the actual profits. The leases commonly granted at present are for sixty-one, thirty-one, and twenty-one years, with very frequently a life or lives. The average value of land is £20 per acre; some sales bring £30, others not more than £16 or £18. Landlords neither erect nor repair the farm steads, and seldom expend money on permanent improvements, the onus of maintaining and improving the farm being thrown wholly on the tenant. The system of middlemen, who rent land from the proprietor, and re-let it to under-tenants, prevails very much. In many instances there are several middlemen between the head landlord and the occupying tenant, which latter, according to the law of real property in this country, thus becomes answerable for the payment of his own rent to his immediate landlord, and for that of all the rents of every intermediate holder under the original proprietor. Estates are of every extent, from a very small quantity to more than 50,000 acres; and every holder who has under-tenants, assumes the grade and bearing of a gentleman. Hence the class of respectable yeomen is scarcely known. Grazing farms are large; the arable in general small, particularly in Ulster, in which province much of the land in several counties, particularly in those where the domestic manufacture of linen prevailed, is parceled out into very minute subdivisions. The practice of taking into cultivation large tracts of mountain bog or other land hitherto unreclaimed, is now very prevalent. The cottier system, by which the occupying tenant receives a patch of land, in part or whole payment of wages, and that of

conacre, in which a large tract is held by a number of individuals in common, are still kept up. Land for planting potatoes is also let for the season, by the acre or rood, at a very high rate.

The total produce of agricultural labor in 1847 was estimated at 15,250,000 quarters of wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, &c., valued at £28,200,834. The value of live stock in 1841, was estimated at £21,105,808; in 1851, £27,739,393. The value of Irish produce imported into Liverpool in 1845 was £5,883,493. With all this wealth, the great mass of the people depend entirely on the potato for subsistence; at least 4,677,850, according to calculation, having no other food. When 2,000,000 tons of the staple food of a people are lost in one year, it needs not much argument to show that famine, disease, and death must ensue.

Manufactures, &c.—Manufactures consist of paper, glass, tobacco, and more particularly linen goods, the chief seat of which latter is in Ulster, where linens to the estimated value of £4,000,000, annually, are made in the dwellings of the rural population, and disposed of to the merchants of Belfast and other large towns. The woolen produce of Ireland is estimated at £300,000. In 1851 there were 91 mills, viz: 69 for flax, 11 for woolens, and 11 for cotton, employing 24,725 persons—steam power equal to 2,646 horses, water power to that of 18,86 horses. Exports amount annually to £20,000,000, imports £17,000,000, mostly to and from British ports. The trade with foreign countries is comparatively inconsiderable. In 1851, 2088 sailing vessels, with an aggregate burden of 223,354 tons, and 125 steam vessels of an aggregate burden of 28,557 tons belonged to Ireland.

FRANCE.

France is one of the richest, most important and powerful of the states of Europe. It is situated between latitude 42° 20′ and 51° 5′ N., and longitude 4° 50′ W. and 8° 20′ E. On the N. W. and N. it is bounded by the English Channel, the Straits of Dover, and the North Sea; on the N. E. by Belgium, Dutch Luxemburg, and the Rhenish provinces of Prussia and Bavaria; E. by the territories of Baden, Switzerland, and the Sardinian states; S. by the Mediterranean and Spain, and W. by the Bay of Biscay and the Atlantic. The shape of France is somewhat hexagonal. Its greatest length from N. W. to S. E. is 664 miles, its greatest breadth is 620 miles.

Inclusive of Corsica, the whole area of France is estimated at 203,736 square miles. The population amounted in 1836 to 33,540,910, and in 1848 was reckoned at about 36,000,000. A census is taken every fifth year.

Physical Geography, &c.—The geographical position of France is well calculated to maintain her influence in European affairs. She has the command of three seas, her sea-coast amounting to 1,485 miles, of which about 360 are on the Mediterranean, 565 on the Atlantic, and 560 on the English Channel and North Sea. On the N.W. coast there are few good harbors, the water being generally shallow, and the tides being violent. The northern part of the W. coast is lofty and rocky, but it declines towards the south, becoming flat and sandy as it reaches the foot of the Pyrenees. The S. coast is generally low, and bordered by numerous lagoons. This is not the case, however, with that portion of it which surrounds the Gulf of Lyons.

Mountains.—The French mountains belong to the Alps and the Pyrenees. The principal chain, which is a part of the Alps, runs from N.E. to S.W., under the names of the Faucilles, the Cevennes, &c. The Pyrenees send off several branches into the S.E. part. Their highest point within French territory is M. Perdu, 10,894 feet high. But the loftiest peak in France belongs to the Alps; it is called M. Olan, and is 13,825 feet high.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Loire, Rhone, Garonne, Seine, Meuse, and Moselle. With the exception of the Rhone, which runs in a southerly direction, their course is towards the N. or W. The Loire is the largest, being about 620 miles in length, of which 500 are navigable. It traverses the center of the country, running in a N.W. course as far as Orleans, and from thence nearly W. to the Atlantic. The Rhone rises in Switzerland, and falls by a double set of mouths into the Mediterranean, after a course within French territory, of 530 miles, of which more than 310 are navigable. Its principal branch is the Saône, 213 miles long, 165 being navigable. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenees, runs 350 miles, 294 of which are navigable, and falls into the Bay of Biscay. The Seine rises in Burgundy, and after an extremely tortuous course of 500 miles, enters the British channel. Its chief branch is the Marne, which is navigable for over 200 miles. The Meuse and Moselle run into the Rhine, the former being navigable 162 miles, and the latter about 72 miles within France.

Soil, Climate, &c.—The soil of France is in general very superior, and the productive parts bear a larger proportion to the whole extent than in any other European country. Iron is more abundant than any other metal. There are one or two silver mines, and silver is frequently found in the lead mines of Finisterre, and of the Rhenish and Alpine departments. Copper, mercury, zinc, tin, antimony, manganese, arsenic, cobalt, &c., are also found, some of them abundantly. Coal is plentiful, and widely diffused. In Loraine, very extensive salt beds exist, which are sufficient to supply France forever. Among other valuable mineral products may be mentioned, asphaltum, naphtha, sulphur, vitriol, alum, niter, plaster of Paris, asbestos, jet, &c. There are at least 700 mineral springs, possessing medicinal properties, which are resorted to by more than 40,000 visitors yearly.

The *climate* of France is not surpassed by that of any other part of Europe. The air is generally pure and the winters mild, though in this respect considerable variations are caused by differences of elevation, latitude, soil, &c.

Vegetable Products, &c.—The vegetable products are very numerous and excellent. The growth of the vine is one of the most important parts of French agriculture. The quantity of vineyard land was estimated in 1827 at 4,265,000 English acres, the growers of wine at 1,800,000 persons, and the quantity produced at about 813,000,000 gallons, worth about $100,000,000. The cost of wine to the French people is estimated at nearly $60,000,000, and the duties on what is consumed at home at about $15,000,000. Next to wheat, therefore, wine is the most important product. The cultivation of the apple, pear, cherry, and olive, is also carried to a great extent, and that of the mulberry, for food for the silk-worm, is an important branch in the south.

Manufactures.—The manufacture of silk is very important. The French silks are superior to those of any other country. In 1839 the number of silk looms was estimated at 85,000, employing 170,000 workmen, and producing silks worth over $40,000,000. The woolen and cotton manufactures are also of great value, the former having been estimated at more than $50,000,000, and the latter at nearly the same sum. Linen, lace, china, arms, saddlery, glass, cambric, hats and gloves, and many other articles, are manufactured in great quantities.

Commerce.—The great articles of export, consist of silks, woolens,

wine, brandy, jewelry, &c. The total exports amount to about $200,000,000 a year, and the imports to almost the same sum.

Roads, Canals, &c.—The aggregate length of roads was estimated in 1837, at about 52,320 miles. They are generally straight and well constructed. The navigable rivers and the canals have a total length of about 8,000 miles, and many new canals are in progress of completion.

Government.—Previous to the last revolution, (1848,) the government, as regulated in 1830, was a limited monarchy, with two legislative bodies. The Chamber of Peers consisted of the princes of the blood, and an unlimited number of members nominated for life, from among certain classes of the population. The Chamber of Deputies was composed of 459 members, elected for five years. The qualifications of an elector were the age of twenty-five years, and the payment of direct taxes to the amount of 200 francs a year. In 1839 the whole number of electors was only 197,598. The ministers were eight in number: the minister of Justice and Religion, of Foreign Affairs, of War, of Marine and Colonies, of the Interior, of Commerce and Public Works, of Public Instruction, and of Finance. They were assisted by a Council of State, the members of which, as well as the ministers, were appointed and dismissed at the pleasure of the king. France was divided into 86 departments, which were subdivided into 363 arrondissements, and the latter again into 2,834 cantons, and 37,234 communes. Each department was governed by a prefect, each arrondissement by a sub-prefect, and each commune by a mayor and other magistrates. The king had perfect command over the administration of the departments, and the mayors were all nominated by him or by the prefect. In February, 1848, France became a republic. Louis Philippe abdicated; in 1849 Louis Napoleon was president; with the assistance of the army declared it an empire, and he was proclaimed emperor December 2, 1851, thereby finally suppressing every vestige of the republic.

Justice.—The celebrated code of Napoleon contains the civil and criminal law of France. It is drawn up with admirable ability, and is generally well and honestly administered. The ordinary judicial tribunals consisted, during the late reign, of a police court in each commune, in which the mayor presided; a justice of peace in each canton, appointed by the king; a court of original jurisdiction in each arrondissement, composed of from three to twelve judges,

appointed by the king; twenty-seven royal courts in the principal cities and towns, which are courts of appeal from the inferior courts; courts of assize, holden at certain periods in each department, with a criminal jurisdiction, and trial by jury; the court of cassation, a superior court of appeal, composed of forty-nine members, appointed for life by the king, with the most absolute authority in judicial matters. Besides these, there were tribunals of commerce, citizens' benches, courts martial, university courts, and other special courts.

Religion.—The Roman Catholic religion is that professed by the great mass of the people, but all other sects are allowed the widest toleration, no one having peculiar privileges. The number of Calvinists and Lutherans is more than 5,000,000, and that of the Jews 60 to 70,000.

Public Instruction.—Education is very generally diffused among the people, and the system of public instruction is excellent. Ten years ago the number of schools in France was nearly 54,000, and the number of pupils 2,650,000. Instruction is primary, secondary, or superior. Every commune is obliged by law to support at least one primary school, in which the common branches of education are taught gratuitously. Besides these, there are infant schools for the children of the poor, schools for adults, attended by workingmen, and normal schools for the education of primary teachers. Secondary instruction is supplied by over 300 communal colleges, 29 royal colleges, and numerous private academies. There are 26 academies for superior instruction, which grant degrees. All these establishments constitute the University of France, and are presided over by the minister of public instruction and a council of nine men. There are also some extensive and celebrated establishments, which are not under the jurisdiction of the University, such as the College of France, Museum of Natural History, School of the Oriental Languages, French Institute, &c. The public libraries of the departments contain about 1,250,000 volumes, and those of Paris 1,378,000.

Army.—The regular standing army of France is composed of about 270,000 men, with 51,000 horses, but in consequence of an alliance being formed between France and England in conjunction with Turkey, the army has been considerably increased. In 1853 it amounted to 404,500 men, of which number the cavalry constituted no less a portion than 60,000. It is recruited by an annual contingent of nearly 80,000 men, either volunteers or conscripts.

The latter of whom are chosen by ballot for seven years' service, with certain exemptions. About 11 or 12,000 of those enlisted annually are volunteers. In no other army are the common soldiers of so high a class, so intelligent and so well educated; and this fact will account for the great influence they have always exercised in public affairs, and for the frequent promotion of officers from the ranks. The highest grade is that of marshal, and the second that of lieutenant-general. There are 183 military posts and six arsenals in the country. The principal military schools are, those of the engineers and artillery at Metz, the practical military and polytechnic school at Paris, the school of Saint Cyr and La Flèche, and the cavalry school at Saumur. The Hospital of Invalids maintains about 5,000 old soldiers.

Besides the regular troops, the National Guard, in 1848, comprising, with few exceptions, all the male population between 20 and 60 years of age, amounted to 3,000,000. Its expense was borne jointly by the government and the citizens.

Navy.—The French naval force in 1853 comprised 40 ships of the line, 40 corvettes, 50 brigs, 46 transports, 50 frigates, 226 other sailing vessels, and 102 steamers. Of these 130 are kept at sea; and there is added to them a reserve of 24 vessels. The crews altogether number about 28,500 men. The principal naval ports are Dunkirk, Calais, Boulogne, Havre, Cherbourg, St. Malo, Brest, Nantes, L'Orient, La Rochelle, Rochefort, Bayonne, Marseilles, Toulon, and Frejus.

COLONIES.

These comprise the islands of Martinique, Guadaloupe, and some smaller ones, in the Antilles, French Guiana, in South America; Algeria, Senegal, and the island of Goree, in Africa; the isles of Bourbon and St. Marie, in the Eastern Ocean, and Pondicherry, and several other places in Hindostan. Their united population, exclusive of Algeria, in 1848 was about 563,000, of which nearly 260,000 were slaves until the recent decree of the present government. The principal colonies have each a colonial council, elected by the French residents, and a governor, appointed by the home government.

SPAIN.

SPAIN is situated between latitude 36° 5′ and 43° 30′ N., and longitude 3° 20′ E. and 9° 10′ W., having on the N. E. France, from which it is separated by the Pyrenees; N. the Bay of Biscay; W. Portugal and the Atlantic; and S. and E. the Straits of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean. Its greatest length, E. to W., is about 650 miles, greatest breadth, 550 miles. Spain is divided into twelve provinces, viz: 1, New Castile; 2, Old Castile; 3, Galicia; 4, Estremadura; 5, Andalusia; 6, Granada; 7, Valencia; 8, Catalonia; 9, Aragon; 10, Navarre; 11, Guipuscoa; 12, The Balearic Islands. The area of the whole is estimated at 182,758 square miles, inhabited by a population of 12,169,000. The principal mountain ranges are the Pyrenees, the Sierra Morena, and the Sierra Nevada. The largest rivers are the Ebro, 400 miles long, emptying into the Mediterranean; the Minho, 150 m., the Douro, 500 m., the Tagus, the Guadiana, 420 m., and the Guadalquivir, 320 m., all flowing into the Atlantic. The soil is arid, sandy, and rocky in the central portions, but that of the lower regions, sloping down to the coast, is every where fertile, and presents a beautiful alternation of mountains and valleys. Except in the North, the climate is every where remarkable for its dryness, which sometimes becomes excessive. The mineral products are rich and various. The most valuable mines are those of lead in Granada. The quicksilver mines of La Mancha are also extremely productive; and in addition to these are extensive mines of rock salt, and copper, tin, antimony, marble, and various kinds of building-stone, are found in several places. Only a single mine of silver is now worked.

Vegetable Products, &c.—The Spanish wheat is excellent, and the bread is considered the best in Europe. Wine is raised abundantly throughout the country, and grapes are exported, both fresh and dried, in large quantities. Oats, barley, maize, rice, oil, sugar, hemp, flax, saffron, honey, and silk are among the other productions. The southern parts produce lemons, oranges, dates, olives, almonds, and pistachio-nuts; and the northern, apples, pears, peaches, cherries, and chestnuts. There are several valuable varieties of the oak, particularly the species which produces cork. The horses of Spain retain in many points, though considerably degenerated, the excellences of their sires, which were introduced by the Arabs when the latter had possession of the country. Those of Andalusia are especially celebrated for their beauty, docility, and grace.

Agriculture.—Owing to bad government, vicious institutions, and other causes, the agriculture of Spain is, and has long been, in the most backward state. A few portions of the kingdom—such as the irrigated lands of Granada, Murcia, and Valencia—are well cultivated; but with these exceptions, the most careless and improvident practice prevails. The cultivated lands form only one-fourth part of the whole surface. The pasture lands, however, support considerable numbers of sheep, whose wool forms an important article of consumption.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Spain have been depressed by similar circumstances to those which have contributed to depress agriculture. The most industrious provinces are Catalonia, Biscay, and Valencia. In these, the manufactures of silk and cotton are carried on to a considerable extent. Lace, broadcloths, and coarse woolen fabrics are made in several places; but, with the exception of silks, all the woven goods are both badly finished and very dear. In the north, tanning is the most important branch, and in various provinces soap is made in considerable quantities for export. Arms are manufactured in several places by the government, which also monopolizes the manufactures of saltpeter, gunpowder, tobacco, porcelain, tapestry, mirrors, &c.

Commerce.—"It is the peculiar misfortune of Spain that every part of her political system has been alike vicious and objectionable. Had her commercial policy been liberal, it would in some degree have compensated for the defects in the distribution of property and political power, and would no doubt have given a powerful stimulus to industry. But, unluckily, this has been in perfect harmony with all her other institutions, and is in all respects worthy of the favorite seat and stronghold of the Inquisition. The grand object has been to exclude foreign manufactures from the peninsula, and to preserve a monopoly of the markets to the home manufacturers." In consequence of this anti-commercial and unwise policy, more than half the trade of the country is in the hands of the *contrabandistas* or smugglers. It is believed that, for nearly three centuries, from 100,000 to 150,000 individuals have been pretty constantly engaged in the contraband trade; that is, they have been engaged in trampling on the laws, obstructing their officers, and committing acts of violence and blood. Owing to these facts, it is very difficult to arrive at any thing like a correct estimate of the amount of imports and exports, since the value of only that portion which passes

through the custom houses can be ascertained. It is supposed that the exports and imports each amount to almost £4,000,000. The principal articles of export, besides silk, are wine, wool, fruits of various kinds, lead, quicksilver, brandy, barilla, olive oil, wheat, &c. The great articles of import are colonial products, obtained chiefly from Cuba, Porto Rico, &c., cottons, and cotton wool, linens, hemp, woolens, flax, salted fish, hardware, glass, timber, rice, hides, butter, cheese, &c.

Roads, &c.—Spain is remarkably destitute of the means of internal communication and transportation. The only good roads are the king's highways, which extend only between the most important places. Canals are rare, though several have been projected at various periods. The inefficiency of the government and the ignorance of the people are such, that the principal work of this nature, the canal of Castile, commenced in 1753, is not yet completed! The navigable rivers are not now in as good a condition for navigation as they were two centuries ago. Several of them, owing to neglect, have become shallow, and no pains have been taken to remove obstructions.

Religion.—Spain has long been, and still is, the favorite seat of the Romish religion, the country in which that religion has been maintained in its greatest purity, with all its accompanying superstition and intolerance. The terrible persecutions of the Inquisition, its deadly hostility to all knowledge, all free inquiry, leave little reason to wonder at the ignorance and bigotry of the Spaniards. In 1812, one-fourth part of the landed property of the kingdom, producing not less than $50,000,000 a year, was in the hands of the clergy. The revenue of the archbishop of Toledo alone, is said to have been worth from $300,000 to $400,000 a year. In 1787, according to official returns, the number of ecclesiastics, including 61,617 monks, 32,500 nuns, and 2,705 inquisitors, amounted to 188,625 individuals; and even in 1833, notwithstanding the attacks made upon the ecclesiastical state during the French war and subsequently, it comprised 175,574 individuals. Since 1835, however, this state of things was materially improved. Many religious establishments have been suppressed, the church property has been confiscated for the use of the state, a considerable portion of it has been sold, and the nation has undertaken to support the established church. It is to be hoped that these circumstances will improve the condition of the people—if an end ever comes to their intestine commotions and financial difficulties.

PORTUGAL.

PORTUGAL is the most western state of Europe. It lies between the 37th and 42d degrees N. latitude, and the 6th and 10th W. longitude, bounded north and east by Spain, and south and west by the Atlantic. Its length from north to south is about 380 miles, and average breadth about 100 miles. Portugal contains 36,510 square miles, with a population (in 1838) of 3,549,420.

In a geographical point of view, Portugal may be considered a dependency or portion of Spain, in which originate all the mountain chains and great rivers by which she is traversed. The climate is generally more mild and agreeable than that of Spain, in consequence of the hight of the mountains and extent of the coast. In winter, the rains are often violent, and at this season, some parts of the country, those around Lisbon, in particular, are subject to earthquakes. Violent hurricanes frequently occur. The general aspect of the country is similar to that of Spain, and the scenery is even more beautiful.

The Vegetable Products are numerous; wheat, barley, oats, flax, &c., are raised in the high ground, vines and maize in those of warmer temperature, and rice in the low grounds. The chief fruits are olives, oranges, and lemons.

The Agriculture of Portugal is in the most wretched condition possible. The heat of the climate and the want of water, especially in the southern parts, have partly contributed to this result; and if to this cause be added the indolence of the people, the exemption of the nobility and clergy from those taxes which are imposed on the cultivators, the want of a proper method of letting land, and the consequent insecurity of the occupier, the want of a manufacturing population, and of markets for produce, the badness of the roads, the difficulties of internal communication, the superstition and ignorance of the people,—the miserable state of agriculture will cease to excite surprise. "In the greater portion of the kingdom," says a writer, "the farmers are quite unacquainted with the rotation of crops, and, one would be almost disposed to conclude, of the differences of soil, inasmuch as they continue to raise the same crops indiscriminately from all sorts of land. Their implements are of the clumsiest and rudest description; the harrow and the hoe were, till lately, nearly unknown, and thrashing was usually performed by trampling the grain under the feet of horses and

cattle. Though, in so dry a country, the command of water and the irrigation of the lands be indispensable, this, in many extensive districts, is entirely neglected. In consequence, the country is in parts but little occupied, and the traveler sometimes proceeds a distance of fifteen or twenty miles, without discovering as many houses. To show the deficiency of the means of communication, it may be sufficient to state, that in traveling from Abrantes to the Spanish frontier, a distance of about one hundred miles, there are six rivers to cross, without a single bridge, though they are fordable only in dry weather."—In some portions, however, north of the Douro, water is abundant, and good corn crops are raised in the lower grounds and vineyards; olives, and other fruits, are extensively cultivated. Wine is the staple production. The red wine called port, from its being all shipped from Oporto, is produced in the upper Douro, about fifty miles above Oporto. The average amount of this wine sent from Portugal, for the three years ending with 1840, was 34,790 pipes a year.

Mineral Products.—Fine marble is found in the mountains, and some gold and silver. Great quantities of salt are produced on the coast by natural evaporation, especially at St. Ubes, whence it is extensively exported. Coal, lead, antimony, and iron are also found, but are not mined to any considerable amount.

Manufactures and Trades.—These are on a par with agriculture. "An Englishman," says McCulloch, "can with difficulty form an idea of the backward state of manufactures in Portugal. They are in general carried on in separate cottages, on the primitive plan of every family manufacturing for its own consumption." "A very superficial knowledge," says Baillie, "even of some of the commonest arts, exists. A carpenter here is the most awkward and clumsy artisan; and the way in which the doors and wood-work belonging to the good houses are finished, would have suited the rudest ages. Their carriages of all kinds, more particularly their wagons and carts, their agricultural implements, their cutlery, locks and keys, are ludicrously bad!" The foreign trade is principally carried on with England and Brazil. The exports consist of raw produce, wine, oil, salt, wool, fruits, cork, &c., and the imports of cotton goods (the most important), hardware, woolen, fish, linens, earthenware, tea, coffee, &c.

Government.—Under the present constitution, established in 1836, the government is an hereditary monarchy, with an upper and lower

representative chamber, both of which are elective, the franchise being vested in the holders of a certain amount of property. These assemblies or cortes meet and dissolve at specified periods, without the intervention of the sovereign, and the latter has no veto on a law twice passed by both houses. Each province has a governor, and justice is administered by the royal court in Lisbon, and by sundry inferior tribunals. Great abuses exist in all branches of the government, and assassination is more prevalent than even in Italy. The country, in fact, teems with ruffians and with crime.

Religion.—The Portuguese religion is Roman Catholic, of the most bigoted kind, and contributes nothing to the morality of the people; Jews are tolerated.

The language is a dialect of the Spanish. Education is little diffused, and of bad quality. The army consists of about 28,000 men, but is of very little efficiency. The navy consists of about twelve ships and brigs, with some smaller vessels.

The Spaniards and Portuguese have a most violent national hatred of each other. The former have a proverb which says, "Strip a Spaniard of all his virtues, and you make a good Portuguese of him." All travelers concur in representing the Portuguese as a most vicious race. Says Semple, "The Portuguese are generally dark complexioned and thin, with black hair, irascible and revengeful in their tempers, indolent, deceitful, and cowardly. But they are temperate in their diet, and that may be classed at the head of their virtues, if indeed they have any more. They have no public spirit, and consequently no national character. An Englishman or a Frenchman may be distinguished in foreign countries by an air and manners peculiar to his nation, but any meager, swarthy man may pass for a Portuguese." All classes seem to despise cleanliness, and the Portuguese towns are the filthiest in Europe. The morals of both sexes are loose in the extreme, and probably altogether the Portuguese are about as low in the social scale as any people in Christendom.

ITALY.

Italy is one of the most celebrated and fertile countries in Europe. Its delicious climate, its beautiful scenery, the magnificent remains of former greatness which are every where found, its remarkable history, all combine to render Italy most interesting to

the traveler and student. It is finely situated, comprising the whole of the central peninsula of South Europe, together with the rich and extensive country to the north of the peninsula, and included between the Alps and the Mediterranean. It extends between lat. 37° 46′ and 46° 30′ N., and long. 6° 30′ and 18° 30′ E.; having on the N. W. France and Savoy, N. Switzerland and Tyrol, N. E. the Austrian provinces of Carinthia and Carniola, E. the Adriatic, and on all other sides the Mediterranean. The length of the Italian peninsula, from Mount St. Gothard to Cape Spartivento, is nearly 750 miles; its breadth varies from about 380 miles in North Italy, to less than 80 miles in its center. The area of the main land is about 100,000 square miles; but three large islands—Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica—and many smaller, as Elba, Ischia, the Lipari group, &c., belong to Italy. It has long been divided into a number of independent states. The following table gives the names, area, population, &c., of the present divisions:—

STATES.

KINGDOM OF NAPLES AND SICILY.	Area in Eng. sq. ms.	Pop. by latest census.	CAPITALS.
Naples,	31,621	6,612,892	Naples.
Sicily,	10,510	2,291,580	Palermo.
	42,131	8,904,472	
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.			
Continental portion,	19,620	4,368,136	Turin.
Insular,	9,547	47,948	Cagliari.
	29,167	4,416,084	
Lombardo-Venetian kingdom,	18,063	2,281,734	Venice.
Illyrian government of Trieste, (*belonging to Austria,*)	4,055	508,016	Trieste.
	22,118	2,789,750	
Papal States,	17,210	2,732,436	Rome.
Grand Duchy of Tuscany,	7,415	1,778,022	Florence.
Duchy of Parma,	2,404	502,841	Parma.
Duchy of Modena,	2,148	586,458	Modena.
Duchy of Lucca,	413	165,748	Lucca.
Republic of San Marino,	22	7,600	San Marino.
TOTAL,	123,028	21,883,411	

Physical Geography, &c.—The Appenines are the principal mountains of Italy. They run through the center of the peninsula, dividing it into two declivities. They are less rugged than the Alps, and abound with rich forests and pasture land. Some of the Italian plains are very extensive and fertile. The largest and most beautiful of these is the great plain of Lombardy, or of the Po. It

is about 250 miles long by from 60 to 120 broad, and from its fertile soil, its splendid scenery, its magnificent cities, has been well styled the garden of Europe. Another great plain stretches along the west shore of central Italy for about 200 miles, from Pisa to Terracina. This plain, though formerly fertile and populous, is now comparatively a desert. This is owing to the prevalence of *malaria*, produced by the noxious air of the stagnant marshes, which infects these districts to such a degree as to render them nearly uninhabitable. The level district around Naples is rich, well cultivated, and densely peopled. The principal and most celebrated rivers of Italy are the Po and the Tiber, and the lakes are those of Garda, Maggiore, Como, Lugano, and Averno. The volcanoes of Vesuvius near Naples, of Etna in Sicily, and of Stromboli in the Lipari islands, are the best known and most celebrated in the world. Italy is not rich in metals, though considerable quantities of iron, copper, and lead ore are found in some portions. One of the most valuable mineral products, is the fine statuary marble of Carrara, and different kinds of marble are met with in almost every part of the peninsula. The other mineral products are sulphur, borax, salt, nitre, alum, alabaster, &c.

Agriculture.—The agriculture of Italy is in a very backward state, owing to the influence of bad government and the indolence of the people. Silk, however, is a most important product, the total produce being estimated at about 12,000,000 pounds a year. Wine and olives are also raised in large quantities, and form very important articles of trade.

Manufactures.—The chief manufactures are those of silk fabrics, silk thread, &c.; and straw plait, gauze, artificial flowers, leather, gloves, essences, musical instruments, &c., are also manufactured; but the raw products of the country form its chief exports, and manufactured articles are mostly imported from foreign countries. The great cities of Venice and Genoa, which once enjoyed a large proportion of the trade of Europe, have decayed, and Italy, at large, has but a small portion of her former commercial importance. In the Austrian, Papal, and Neapolitan territories, commerce has been ruined by impolitic duties and prohibitions, and little or nothing has been done to promote trade or manufactures by the improvements of roads or harbors. Trieste is at present the principal Italian port, and next to it are Leghorn, Genoa, Naples, Civita-Vecchia, Ancona, Venice, and Palermo. The principal inland commercial

cities are Milan, Brescia, Verona, Bologna, Turin, Florence, Lucca, and Rome.

The principal *roads* in Austrian Italy, Tuscany, &c., are good, but in the Papal States and Neapolitan dominions, they are generally very bad. Some new roads have been opened, however, from Leghorn, Genoa, and other places, and magnificent ones have been constructed over the Alps.

Religion, Education, &c.—The population is entirely Roman Catholic, except a few Piedmontese, who are Protestants, some communicants of the Greek Church, in the southern part of Naples, and Jews and strangers of various creeds, residing principally in the large cities. There are 38 Roman Catholic bishops, and a great number of inferior ecclesiastics. Elementary education is pretty generally diffused in North Italy and Tuscany, but most of the higher branches are very far behind in most parts of Italy. In the Papal States, and Naples particularly, the people are grossly ignorant and neglected. Nothing else, indeed, could be expected in a country subject to irresponsible governments, and where the freedom of the press has been almost entirely unknown. The most celebrated universities are those of Pavia, Padua, Bologna, Pisa, Parma, Rome, and Naples, but their ancient reputation has greatly decayed. Italy is richer than any other country in monuments of antiquity and of the middle ages. Volumes have been written in description of these interesting relics, and it is impossible here more than simply to allude to some of them. Among the most splendid remains of ancient grandeur, are the Coliseum and the Pantheon, the triumphal arches of Vespasian, Severus, and Constantine, the pillars of Trajan and Antonius, at Rome; the amphitheaters of Verona and Pola; the catacombs of Naples; the ruins of Pæstum; and, above all, the remains of Herculaneum and Pompeii. Almost every town possesses some memorial of antiquity, and there is scarcely a place or a stream that is not imperishably associated with some important circumstance in history. Tivoli (anciently Tiber), where were the villas of Horace and Catullus; the Alban mount, on which is the temple of Jupiter Latialis; Frascati (Tusculum), the seat of Cicero's villa; the lake Nemi, sacred to Diana; the bay of Baiæ; the field of Cannæ; the lakes of Thrasimene and Avernus, and a thousand other places, have acquired a renown for all time.

State of the People.—The condition of the people in most parts

of the country presents a most forbidding contrast to the fertility of the soil and the beauty of the climate. Poverty, wretchedness, and misery prevail generally among the lower classes. Even in the rich and beautiful district of Tuscany, "we find," says a traveler, "a total want of all the conveniences of life, and a general appearance of privation. In all the towns and villages near Naples, strangers are besieged by crowds of beggars, and the proportion of squalid, tattered, and wretched persons is most excessive. In the Papal states all is slovenly and squalid; there seems to be no middle link in the chain of society between the cardinal and the beggar." It is not so bad in the north of Italy; but even there, the destitution and misery of the people are often such as to stagger belief.

Government.—For many years there has been nothing more than the shadow of popular representation in Italy. The little duchy of Lucca has had, indeed, a senate of 36 representatives, and some bodies in the island of Sardinia and in Genoa have somewhat trenched upon the power of the king of those dominions. The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom has also had its two principal assemblies, and in the kingdom of Naples there were two legislative chambers. Elsewhere the governments of Italy have been absolute. Ever since the suppression of the Florentine republic in 1530, until the glorious events about 1847–8, the Italians had ceased to exercise any perceptible influence over the deliberations of their multitudinous oppressors. Parceled out among foreign sovereigns, or sovereigns descended from foreigners, what interest could they feel in the contests of the Bourbons of Parma and Naples, the Austrians of Milan and Mantua, and the Lorrains of Tuscany? They were not only deprived of their ancient liberties, but the constant state of vassalage in which the petty sovereigns were themselves held by the great trans-Alpine powers, has prevented their acting in conformity with either the wishes or the interests of their subjects. The national spirit was thus gradually destroyed; the Italians either ceased to have or to express an opinion on public affairs; they plunged into the depths of sensuality; and, from being the most active, intelligent, and industrious people in Europe, sunk into a state of sluggish indolence and apathy. "The victim," says Hallam, "by turns, of selfish and sanguinary factions, of petty tyrants, and of foreign invasions, Italy has fallen like a star from its place in the heavens; she has seen her harvest trodden down by the horses of the stranger, and the blood of her children wasted in

quarrels not their own; *conquering* or *conquered*, in the indignant language of her poet, *still alike a slave!*"

The picture presented by the eloquent writer just quoted, is enough to make all friends of freedom despair of the regeneration of Italy, and yet it is not probably overdrawn. But after all this long night of oppression and misery, "the advancing spears" of a bright dawn glittered over the consecrated mountains. Italy again awoke. From the icy confines of the Alps to the burned sides of Etna, resounded the voice of the people shouting for liberty, the crash of arms taken up against tyrants. It is a most strange fact that the present pope, Pius IX., the head of the most absolute government of the world, should have been the first to lead off in the cause of popular freedom. To this wise and enlightened sovereign, is due the imperishable honor of kindling the flame which spread over all Europe. By his liberal policy, his kind concessions to his subjects, he aroused from its embers the almost extinguished spirit of Italian nationality, and gave an impulse to the popular mind, which led to results as astonishing to himself as to the rest of the world.

The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom is perhaps that part of Italy which offers the most interesting spectacle at the present moment. This kingdom, consisting of Lombardy and Venice, is one of the most populous, beautiful, and productive countries in the world. It is bounded N. by Carinthia, Tyrol, and the Grisons, from which it is separated by the Alps; E. by Trieste and the Adriatic; S. by the Po, and W. by Sardinia. It contains a population of nearly 5,000,000 in an area of 18,000 square miles. That congress of Vienna, whose complacent doings in 1815 placed the whole of this glorious country in the iron gripe of Austria, where for more than thirty years it had been struggling. The Austrian rule had been arbitrary and oppressive in the extreme. Every species of tyranny had been carried into effect by the relentless Metternich, for the purpose of stifling any thing like popular feeling. The whole course of his government had been that of a cold, repulsive, jealous, domineering despotism. After much commotion all over the kingdom, a successful insurrection took place at Milan on the 24th of March, 1848, the Austrian troops were driven from that fine city, and the people universally rushed to arms. About the same time Venice declared her a republic, and a treaty offensive and defensive was shortly afterwards entered into by all the Italian states against Austria.

In the kingdom of Naples, or the two Sicilies, events of importance have also taken place. This kingdom consists of the Neapolitan dominions in the southern portion of the peninsula, together with the large, fertile, and celebrated island of Sicily. Its government has been a nearly unlimited monarchy. King Ferdinand II. was an offspring of the ever-imbecile and tyrannical house of Bourbon. Influenced by the measures of the pope, the inhabitants of the two Sicilies, about 1847–8, wrested a constitution from their unwilling monarch, and shortly afterwards Sicily declared herself independent of the Neapolitan crown. A series of sanguinary conflicts took place between the people and the royal troops; Messina was bombarded and taken by the Neapolitan troops in September, 1848.

The kingdom of Sardinia comprises the whole of N. Italy west of the river Tessino, including the territory of Piedmont, Genoa, and Nice, the duchy of Savoy, and the island of Sardinia. In many respects, this portion of Italy has been in advance of the rest. In the island of Sardinia, the regal authority has been considerably circumscribed by a supreme council, and though it has been absolute in the continental part of the kingdom, yet the government has for some time had for its object the restraining of the extravagant pretensions of the nobility and clergy, and the enlargement of the rights of the mass of its subjects. Many salutary laws have been enacted, and many improvements carried out. It was natural to expect, therefore, from Sardinia, a ready response to the enlightened measures of the pope, and such in fact has been the case. Impelled, no doubt, partly by circumstances which he could not control, and partly too, it must be confessed, by a desire for self-aggrandizement, the king of Sardinia, Charles Albert, was among the first to hail and to assist the advance of Italian regeneration. On the first breaking out of hostilities between the states of Lombardy and Austria, he raised a large army for the assistance of his neighbors at Milan, declared war against Austria, placed himself at the head of his troops, and marched into Lombardy. He displayed all the qualities of a great general. With usually inferior numbers, he defeated the Austrians in a series of brilliant engagements, and drove them from many of the most important towns of Lombardy. On the 30th of May a decisive battle was fought near the town of Goito, which resulted in the total defeat of the Austrian army. On the same day, the Austrian garrison of Peschiera capitulated to the

victorious Italians, with 180 pieces of cannon, and vast quantities of military stores. These auspicious events, together with the accession of the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Modena, to the league, and the formation of constitutional governments in these states, appeared to guarantee the result of the war of independence. But matters took a turn. In November of 1848, Count Rossi was assassinated. On the 24th the pope fled in disguise. A republican form of government was attempted in 1849. On the 8th of February the national assembly declared the pope divested of all temporal power, but all this was overturned by the intervention of a French force. The pope returned on the 12th of April, 1850.

GERMANY.

At present Germany comprises all the countries of central Europe, and is bounded N. by Denmark and the Baltic; E. by Prussian Poland, Galicia, and Hungary; S. by the Tyrol and Switzerland; and W. by France, Belgium, Holland, and the German Ocean. Its surface is much diversified, the E. and S. E. portions being mountainous, while the W. and N. present spacious plains, through which the rivers run generally in a northwardly direction. The rivers are numerous and important, the principal ones being the Danube, 1800 miles long, the Rhine, the Weser, the Elbe, the Oder, each of which receives several affluents. The climate of Germany is mild and healthy, and remarkable for the evenness of its temperature, there being so little difference in the northern and southern parts, that the mean temperature of Hamburg is but two degrees lower than that of Vienna. This extensive country, with its complicated and peculiar government, its ever-varying landmarks, and its numerous component states, has long been a puzzle to geographers. It is quite impossible to enter into any account of these peculiarities. Since 1815 the German states have formed a confederation, consisting of thirty-five independent sovereigns, and four free cities. Their affairs are managed by the Diet, which meets at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, and in which every member is represented. Austria has the right of presiding in the Diet; every member has the right of making propositions and of bringing forth measures for discussion. All the members are bound together against the attacks of any foreign power, as well as for the security of each individual

state, and mutually guarantee to each other the possessions of each state comprehended in the confederation. If war is declared by the confederation, no member can enter into separate negotiation with the enemy, nor conclude separate treaties of peace. The members are further bound not to declare war against each other under any pretence whatever, but to submit all causes of altercation to the Diet. A different number of votes is allowed to the different members, according to their relative power and importance. Thus, in the annexed list, the first five states are entitled to four votes each; the next three to two each, and the rest to one each.

Germany possesses extensive mineral riches:—gold (in small quantities) and silver occur in Saxony, Bohemia, and the Hartz; iron, and copper abundant; mines (in Idra) of tin, lead, mercury; bismuth, zinc, arsenic, cobalt, antimony, &c.; building marble and precious stones; porcelain clay, coal, turf, salt in numerous springs and rich mines. Germany has likewise a variety of mineral springs. The vegetable products in the North, are wheat, rye, barley, oats, and buckwheat. South, spelt and maize, garden produce of all kinds, and potatoes.

Germany is abundantly supplied with all the useful domestic animals. Among the wild animals, are the bear, chamois, the marmot in the Alps, the wolf in the valley of the Rhine; the hamsters in the Hartz, and the lynx, the fox, the martin, and the weasel, &c. In the Alps the eagle and vulture.

The inhabitants of Germany belong to the Teutonic, with a mixture of Slavonian. Protestants (Lutheran and Reformed) prevail in the North; Roman Catholics in the South. The rich and powerful German language is every where predominant, being divided into high and low German—the first of which is the chief written language.

German Customs League.—Until a recent period, each of the German states had its own custom houses, and its own tariff and revenue laws. Each petty state endeavored to procure a revenue for itself, or to advance its own industry, by taxing or prohibiting the production of those by which it was surrounded. Instead of being reciprocal and dependent, every thing was separate and hostile; the commodities admitted into Hesse were prohibited in Baden, and those prohibited in Wirtemberg were admitted into Bavaria. To Prussia is due the credit of nearly suppressing this selfish and anti-social system, and the most perfect freedom of commerce is now established among most of the German nations. An assembly of

representatives meets annually to arrange all matters relating to tariffs, duties, customs, &c., and to make such new enactments as may be required.

The territories composing the German Confederation are—

	STATES.	Area in sq. miles.	Population in 1854.	Contingent of men to the army of Ger. Confed'tion.
1	Austrian Empire,	75,822	11,893,182	94,822
2	Kingdom of Prussia,	71,296	12,314,700	79,486
3	Kingdom of Bavaria,	29,638	559,452	35,600
4	Kingdom of Saxony,	5,766	987,832	12,000
5	Kingdom of Hanover,	14,776	819,250	13,054
6	Kingdom of Wirtemberg,	7,675	734,000	13,955
7	Grand Duchy of Baden,	5,851	356,940	10,000
8	Electorate of Hesse,	3,858	754,590	5,679
9	Hesse Darmstadt,	2,243	790,130	6,195
10	Duchy of Holstein,	4,710	476,950	3,600
11	Grand Duchy of Luxemburg,	996	389,319	2,556
	Lemberg,	890	147,540	
12	Duchy of Brunswick,	1,526	270,825	2,096
13	Grand Duchy of Mechlenburg-Schwerin,	4,834	542,760	3,580
14	Duchy of Nassau,	1,802	429,060	3,028
15	Grand Duchy of Saxe-Weimar,	1,421	62,524	2,010
16	Duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha,	816	150,412	1,116
17	Duchy of Saxe-Meiningen,	933	166,364	1,150
18	Duchy of Saxe-Altenburg,	509	132,849	982
19	Grand Duchy of Mechlenburg-Strelitz,	997	99,628	718
20	Grand Duchy of Oldenburg and Kniphausen,	2,417	281,920	2,829
21	Duchy of Anhalt-Dessau,	318	61,480	529
22	Duchy of Bernburg,	297	46,920	370
23	Duchy of Cœthen,	254	40,200	325
24	Principality of Schwartzenburg-Sonderhausen,	318	60,847	451
25	Principality of Rudolstadt,	340	69,040	539
26	Principality of Hohenzollern-Hechingen,	127	20,200	145
27	Principality of Lichtenstein,	64	6,520	55
28	Principality of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen,	275	42,990	356
29	Principality of Waldeck,	466	59,697	519
30	Principality of Reuss-Greitz,	148	31,500	224
31	Principality of Reuss-Schleitz,	297	72,050	522
32	Principality of Lippe-Schauenberg,	212	27,600	240
33	Principality of Lippe-Detmold,	445	82,970	691
34	Landgravate of Hesse-Homburg,	106	24,921	200
35	Free city of Lubeck,	127	54,166	407
36	Free city of Frankfort,	43	77,950	479
37	Free city of Bremen,	106	79,047	485
38	Free city of Hamburg,	148	188,054	1,298
	TOTAL,	242,867	43,400,377	302,281

PRUSSIA.

PRUSSIA is situated between 49° and 56° N. lat., and 6° and 23° E. long. The Prussian dominions are arranged in a very disconnected manner. Eastern Prussia has on the N. the Baltic; on the E. Russia, Russian Poland, and Cracow; and on the S. and West the Austrian states of Galicia, Moravia, and Bohemia, with Saxony and other German states. West Prussia, which comprises the provinces on the Rhine, has on the N. and E. Hanover and other German states; on the S. France; and on the W. Belgium and the Netherlands. The extreme length of the Prussian dominions is about 775 miles, and the extreme breadth is 404 miles. Prussia did not become a kingdom until the year 1700. On the accession of Frederick the Great, in 1740, it did not contain over 2,500,000 inhabitants, and its extraordinary progress has been mainly due to the talent and energies of that remarkable monarch, who made such additions to his territory, that, before his death, it had increased nearly one half, and had a population of 6,000,000. By the partition of Poland, in 1792, and its final dismemberment, in 1795, Prussia acquired a still greater accession of territory, and upwards of 20,00,000 more inhabitants. In 1806, and subsequently, she was humbled by the French, under Napoleon, but at the general peace, in 1815, she became more powerful than ever, by the recovery of nearly all her Polish dominions, and by acquisitions in Saxony, Pomerania, and the Rhenish provinces. At present the Prussian monarchy is divided into eight provinces, Prussia proper, Posen, Brandenburg, Pomerania, Silesia, Saxony, Westphalia, and the Rhine provinces, containing in all a population of about 15,000,000, and an area of 107,937 square miles.

Face of the Country, &c.—The surface of Prussia is generally flat, being composed of vast plains, with the exception of Saxony, the lower Rhenish provinces, and Silesia. The soil varies greatly. In many portions it consists of barren sand, diversified with extended heaths, but in other parts, particularly along the rivers, there is good land. In Prussian Poland the soil is generally fertile, but Silesia, and the Saxon and Rhenish provinces are the most productive. The country is well watered by large and navigable rivers. The Rhine traverses the Rhenish provinces; the Weser runs along the eastern frontier; the Oder passes through the whole extent of the monarchy, from Silesia to the Baltic; the Saxon provinces are

watered by the Elbe, Posen by the Wartha; and besides these there are many other large rivers, as the Niemen, the Ems, the Moselle, &c. Lakes are also exceedingly numerous. The principal seaports are Memel, Konigsberg, Dantzic, Stettin, and Stralsund. The climate is as various as the soil. Along the Baltic it is moist; in the southern part of Silesia, and in Ducal Prussia, the winters are severe, but in the other portions it is comparatively mild. The mineral productions are more rich than might have been expected from so flat a country. Iron is extensively wrought in Silesia and the Rhenish provinces, coal is abundant in the latter and in Saxony, and salt is also produced in the Saxon provinces, which yield, besides, considerable copper and some silver. Silesia furnishes large quantities of zinc, lead, and tin, and amber is a valuable product of Ducal Prussia. In addition to these, amethyst, agate, sulphur, limestone, grinding-stone, porcelain earth, alum, &c., are found in different provinces.

Agriculture, &c.—The vegetable products are the same with those of most temperate countries. Rye and wheat, buckwheat, oats, barley, and potatoes are the principal agricultural products. Horses, cattle, and sheep are every where raised. The growth of the latter has received much attention, and some of the most celebrated breeds come from this country. That of Saxony is particularly well known. In consequence of improvements in this branch of industry, the wool of Saxony, Silesia, and some other provinces, has become superior even to that of Spain, and is now the principal article of export.

Manufactures.—Though rather an agricultural than a manufacturing country, Prussia has, of late years especially, become the seat of many valuable manufactures. Among these may be enumerated linen, woolen, broadcloth, hardware, cutlery, porcelain, jewelry, watches, &c. Beer and spirits are very extensively made and consumed in all parts of the monarchy. Vast numbers of books annually issue from the presses of Berlin and Halle. The principal manufacturing district of Prussia, and probably of the whole continent, is on the river Wupper, a tributary of the Rhine, having Eberfeld and Solingen for its principal towns. Some of the manufactories are on a very large scale, employing four or five hundred hands.

Commerce.—The exports from Prussia consist principally of corn, wool, timber, Westphalian hams, zinc, flax, bristles, salted provisions,

linen and woolen cloths, silk fabrics, iron and hardware, jewelry, watches, Prussian blue, spirits, beer, &c. The chief imports are sugar, coffee, &c., raw cotton, indigo and other dye stuffs, spices, wines, &c. The amount of the trade of Prussia, owing to the free system of internal commerce now established all over Germany, cannot be precisely ascertained, but it is considerable, and rapidly increasing. The shipping is not very considerable, the number of vessels being estimated at about 600.

Government.—The King of Prussia is assisted by a Council of State and nine ministers. Each province has a state or popular assembly of its own, to which deputies are elected, and by whose sanction measures proposed by the government are carried into effect. The king nominates a president and vice-president of each state, and fixes the duration of the session. A president is placed also at the head of each province, which has, besides, a military commandant, a superior court of justice, a provincial director of taxes, and a provincial consistory, all appointed by the king. The provinces are subdivided into regencies or counties, and these again into parishes, each of which has its local authorities. The government has been nominally a despotism, but in no country in Europe has the king possessed less arbitrary power. It may in fact be said to have been self-governed, for though the king may have been all-powerful so long as his conduct has been approved by the bulk of the people, yet recent events have proved that he is unable to maintain himself without their confidence and support. He has no peculiar interest to fall back upon. Neither the aristocracy nor the church is powerful, and the army is merely a portion of the citizens, so that public opinion is almost omnipotent.

Religion.—The royal family are Protestants, but all denominations of Christians enjoy the same privileges. The majority of the people are Protestants, their number amounting to more than 9,000,000. The Protestant church is governed by consistories, or boards appointed by the government, one for each province, and the election of Catholic bishops and priests is also controlled by the crown. Proselytism, or attempting to induce a person to change his religion, is forbidden, and there is, perhaps, in no country less of religious animosity than in Prussia.

Education.—Prussia can boast of possessing a more perfectly organized and complete system of national education than has ever existed in any other country. Attendance at school *is enforced by*

law. Every child, whether male or female, rich or poor, must attend a public school, from the age of five years till such time as the clergyman of the parish certifies that the child has acquired all the education prescribed by law for an individual in its station. The school-time generally extends from six to fourteen years. Should a child not attend, its parents or guardians must satisfy the public authorities that it is receiving an appropriate education at home, or in a private seminary. The school-fees are exceedingly moderate; and the children of such poor persons as are unable to pay them, are instructed gratuitously at the public expense. It has been asserted, upon estimates based on correct statistical calculations, and there seems to be no reason to doubt the fact, that *every child* born within the limits of Prussia, is educated. No particular religious creed is allowed to be taught in any school, but on particular days religious instruction is given to the children by the clergymen of the different sects to which they belong. Prussian education is also of the best quality, and every exertion is used to render it as perfect as possible. It is in this respect, even according to the admissions of British writers, "as much superior to that of the lower and middle classes of England and Scotland as can well be imagined." Exclusive of the common and superior schools, Prussia has six universities of great celebrity, attended by students from all parts of the world.

Military Force.—The obligation of military service is universal, every man being obliged to enter the army of the line, or the *landwehr* (provincial army), between the ages of 20 and 32, as a private, and to serve in one or the other for three years. The army in 1853 was estimated at about 225,550 men; the reserve and the first ban of the landwehr, amounted to 174,616 men, and the second ban of the landwehr comprised 175,196 men. Of these the regular army and the first ban of the landwehr amounting to 400,166, are ready to act immediately against an enemy. There are numerous institutions for military education. The greatest pains are taken to have the officers well instructed, and the condition of the common soldiers is equal, in point of comfort and pay, to that of any other in the world. This system has nationalized the army, which must always be actuated, in a great degree, by the sentiments and feelings that prevail among the mass of the people from which it is taken, and to which it is constantly returned. When, therefore, it is said that Prussia is a military monarchy, it must be remembered that the army is not

composed of mercenary troops, but of citizens serving for a limited period, and that it has very little analogy indeed to other European armies.

AUSTRIA.

The empire of Austria is situated between 42° and 51° N. latitude, 8° 30′ and 26° 30′ E. longitude, being about 860 miles in length and 492 in breadth. It is bounded N. by Prussia, Cracow, and Russian Poland; E. by Russia and Moldavia; S. by Turkey, the Adriatic, and the independent states of Italy; and W. by the Sardinian states, Switzerland and Bavaria. This extensive empire is composed of many states, differing widely in population and extent: and inhabited by four different races. Upper and Lower Austria, the Tyrol and Styria are populated by Germans; Bohemia, Moravia, Hungary, Silesia, Galicia, Dalmatia, and several minor provinces, by Slavonians; Transylvania by the Magyars; Lombardy and Venice by Italians. The Slavonians are estimated at about 16,500,000; the Germans at 6,700,000; the Italians at 6,700,000; and the Magyars at 5,900,000. These, together with Jews, Armenians, Wallachians, &c., make up a most motley population of more than 43,000,000.

Face of the country, &c.—Austria contains several chains of mountains, of which the principal is that of the Carpathians. Their entire length exceeds 3,000 miles. The principal valleys are situated in the southern provinces, parallel to the Alps. There are also large plains, generally following the course of the chief rivers, the Rhine, the Danube, the Elbe, the Oder, the Vistula, the Dneister, and the Po. All these rivers, together with many of their tributaries, are navigable, and might afford most extensive commercial facilities.

Climate.—The climate varies greatly in different parts of this large territory. The most southerly part of Dalmatia produces some tropical vegetables, while to the north of a line drawn through Troppau and Lamberg, Indian corn and the vine do not flourish. In the intermediate region, the usual fruits of temperate climates are produced. The air of the northern provinces is generally clear and healthy, but the central districts of Hungary often suffer severely from drought. In the Tyrol, the same classification of climates is applicable as in other Alpine regions.

Mineral wealth, &c.—Austria is rich in minerals, and were a proper

amount of capital and skill used for the purpose, the value of this kind of production might be greatly increased. Several of the rarer metals, such as titan, uran, and tellurium, are found in different parts; the most beautiful opals ever discovered are found in Hungary, and carnelian, beryl, chalcedony, topaz, garnet, and amethyst of superior quality in Bohemia and Hungary. Beds of coal have also been found in nearly every province. Mineral springs are very abundant, and many of them are celebrated as the annual resort of great numbers of visitors.

Vegetable products.—Among these are all the different kinds of corn, grasses, &c., together with the vine, flax and hemp, tobacco, hops, saffron, several species of dyeing plants, and a great variety of fruits. The forests of Austria are of immense extent and value. The mountainous regions are covered with fir, pine, larch, &c., and in most provinces great care is taken to supply the annual consumption by planting trees in proportion to the numbers felled.

Roads, &c.—The facilities for internal communication are very extensive. The roads are usually well constructed, and some of them have been completed over high mountains and through difficult passes, with great perseverance and ingenuity, and at immense expense. Railroads have also been constructed between many of the principal towns. That from Vienna to Bochnia in Galicia is or will be, when finished, nearly 400 miles in length. There are also railroads between Budweis and Gmuden, a distance of about 100 miles, between Olmutz and Vienna, with a branch to Brunn, between Vienna and Glocknitz, &c., besides several important routes now in progress. The river system of Austria is on a grand scale. Most of the rivers are navigated by steamboats, and are thus rendered of great service to trade and commerce. The aggregate length of the navigable rivers, measured by straight lines, is stated at 4,332 miles; that of canals at 831 miles, and that of lakes at 229.

The principal commercial port is Trieste, upon the Adriatic. Venice is the seat of the admiralty. Fiume is the port of Hungary, and there are several good harbors on the Mediterranean.

Agriculture.—Many parts of Austria are both extremely fertile and highly cultivated. Wheat, rye, and other grains are raised in immense quantities in most of the provinces, and the growing of the vine forms one of the most important branches of agriculture. The whole quantity of wine produced annually has been estimated at no less than 380,000,000 gallons. Lombardy in particular is one of the

most carefully cultivated and productive countries in the world. The raising of the mulberry, as food for the silk worm, is carried to so great an extent, that Lombardy is said to contain more than 10,000,000 of those trees. Sheep and wool are also raised in great quantities, and the pasture lands support numerous herds of cattle. Millet and buckwheat, rice, olive oil, tobacco, lemons and oranges, and several other fruits, form important articles of produce in the southern provinces.

Manufactures, &c.—Were the natural advantages of the country properly improved by industry, and a liberal policy, no country could surpass Austria in the importance and value of its manufactures. The mining wealth is inexhaustible. Iron and native steel especially, are found in Styria and Illyria in so great abundance, that the ore is merely quarried from mountains several thousand feet in hight, and which are solid blocks of carbonated iron ore. Were this production alone properly taken advantage of, it might be made to supply, in a great measure, the place of artificial steel, to which it is said to be much superior. Besides iron and steel, there are also found in sufficient quantities to make them very important articles, graphite or black lead, alum, sulphur, vitriol, litharge, zinc, cobalt, &c. The principal supply of quicksilver comes from Illyria, which produces the annual amount of about 3,300 tons. The annual amount of salt, which is an important article of export, is about 880,000 tons. Besides these, there are manufactured in Austria, cotton, woolen, silk, linen, glass, porcelain, chemical wares and dye stuffs, leather, &c. The number of manufactories is estimated at about 12,000, giving employment to 2,500,000 operatives.

Political System, Laws, &c.—For a great many years, Austria was under the despotic rule of Metternich, and, until recently, nothing like freedom of any kind was enjoyed by the people. The administration of the laws, the financial system, the press, every thing, in short, which formed a part of the internal economy of the empire, had been modified and moulded by the heavy hand of a power whose object was to preserve its own greatness at the expense of every popular right. The Austrians have, however, in a measure, at least, shaken off the yoke of their tyrants.

Education.—Education is very generally diffused among the people. Schools are established by the government in every village; no man is allowed to enter the marriage state who is not able to read, write, and cast up accounts; no tradesman can employ work-

men who are unable to read and write, and books are published and distributed to every person. Besides elementary schools, there are many great and celebrated universities, which are attended by numerous students. Those at Vienna, Prague, Pavia, Padua, Lemberg, Olmutz, &c., are widely renowned. Under a free constitution, there is no doubt that the Austrians might become, with such advantages, a most enlightened and liberal people. But the great defect consists in the jealousy entertained by the government of every thing like freedom of inquiry or discussion as to political matters, and even philosophy. The board of education controls the minutest details relating to schools, prescribing the course of study, publishing the books used in instruction, and suffering not the slightest deviation from the strictest rules of its jealous plan. The censorship of the press, also, has hitherto stifled and degraded the intellectual energies of the people. The number of journals throughout this great empire amounted, a few years ago, to only about 80, and of these the circulation was very limited, that of the principal one being less than 3000 in number. Very few foreign papers are admitted, and those are carefully prohibited from offering any remarks upon the condition or policy of the empire.

Army, &c.—The military force of the empire is composed of a standing army and an army of reserve (Landwehrs). The permanent force in time of peace is 406,000 men, and during war 738,624. The navy is composed of 93 sailing vessels, mounting 681 guns, and 11 steam vessels, carrying 61 guns. There is, besides, an armed flotilla on the Danube. Austria maintains a great many fortifications.

The public revenues arise from direct taxes on property, industry, and incomes, with personal and Jews' taxes, &c., &c. The greater proportion is contributed by Bohemia, Galicia, Illyria, and the German and Italian provinces. Hungary contributes a certain sum, and supports a fixed number of troops. The revenue is $108,277,238; expenditure, $135,034,000 annually; national debt, $593,528,353. The imports of 1850 were 158,955,400 florins; exports, 104,847,500.

The Austrian monarchy is composed of states which recognize the same sovereign, but governed by different laws; it takes the first rank in the states of the German confederation. The crown is hereditary by order of primogeniture in the male, and failing it in the female line. The constitution was abolished December, 1851, and now forms an absolute monarchy. Nearly each province has distinct usages and peculiarities of government. Hungary and

Austria were united by one common sovereign; but the power of the king was controlled by the Hungarian Diet, and recent disputes led to a complete change in relations. Hungary declared itself an independent state in 1849, and proceeded to vindicate its rights by an appeal to arms. The Hungarians, after various successes, drove the Austrians entirely out of Hungary, when Russia interfered, and after a severe struggle, the Austrians and Russians overran Hungary, and completely subdued the people for a time. The Hungarian force at any one time never exceeded 135,000 men, with 400 pieces of artillery, against whom were opposed, in the last campaign, 150,000 Russian, 110,000 Austrian soldiers, besides Servians, Wallachs, &c., making a total of upwards of 300,000 men.

BAVARIA.

BAVARIA is one of the German states, formerly a duchy, and now one of the principal of the secondary kingdoms of Europe. It is composed of two parts, the "Territory of the Danube and Maine," and the "Territory of the Rhine." The former, which comprises about seven eighths of the whole kingdom, is bounded N. by Saxony, E. and S. by Austria, and W. by Wirtemberg, Baden, and Hesse. The Rhine territory lies on the west of the Rhine, by which it is partly bounded, and is separated from the rest of the territory by Baden and Hesse. The extent and population are stated in the table on page 32.

Surface, Climate, &c.—The surface of Bavaria is generally mountainous, except along the Danube, which flows through the kingdom, making a course of about 270 miles, in which it receives thirty-eight smaller rivers, the principal of which are the Iller, the Inn, and the Iser. The Maine is the chief river in the north. The lakes are numerous, and some of them large. Most of them afford plenty of fish. A grand canal is nearly or quite completed for joining the Rhine to the Danube. It is an immense and expensive work, estimated to cost about £800,000, and is carried on with the assistance of government. The climate of Bavaria is generally temperate and healthy. The forests are extensive and valuable, and timber is one of the principal articles of export. The most important mineral products are salt, coal, and iron; black lead is obtained

in some parts, and a great variety of beautiful and useful marbles are found.

The soil is generally good, and in the plains and valleys is deep, fertile, and adapted to almost all kinds of crops. Agriculture, however, owing to the ignorance of the peasantry, has been in a very backward state. Of late years, however, the government has made great exertions to promote improvement, both by introducing reforms in the systems of administration and education, and by its efforts to improve the breed of sheep, &c. The hop is extensively cultivated, and considerable quantities exported. The best vineyards are in the circles of the Rhine and lower Maine, and some of the wines are excellent. Men and women labor together in the field in all parts of Bavaria.

Manufactures.—The manufacture of beer is the most extensive and important. Says Mr. Strang, "No individual in the world drinks so much beer as a Bavarian. I am credibly informed that a majority of the mechanics of Munich are rarely satisfied with less than ten or twelve tankards a day. In every corner of the city you find beer-houses; and when you see a Bavarian peasant not working, you are sure to find him with a can of beer in his hand." It is estimated that there are about 5,500 breweries in the kingdom, and that their annual products amount to 90,000,000 gallons. It is said, however, that notwithstanding this extreme indulgence in beer, the laboring people are generally healthy, well clothed and fed, and beggars are rarely seen. Considerable quantities of coarse linens, leather, iron ware, and jewelry, are manufactured and exported. The optical, surgical, mathematical, and musical instruments made at Munich are highly prized, especially the telescopes, which are superior to any in the world.

Law of Marriage, &c.—In Bavaria, all destitute persons have a legal right to relief, and to prevent abuses of this right, a law exists prohibiting marriage between people without capital, without the previous permission of the poor institutions. The persons who superintend the management of the poor in each district are bound to refuse such permission, unless they consider it probable that the parties will be able to provide for their children; and in case the permission is granted, and the family should not be able to maintain themselves, then their support devolves upon the officers by whom such permission was given. It is said that this law has had a powerful effect in preventing improvident marriages, and in avert-

ing extreme poverty and destitution. Though ignorance and vice prevail in some portions of the kingdom, yet, on the whole, the Bavarians are sober, industrious, and respectable.

Government.—The executive power belongs to the king. The legislature consists of two chambers, one of senators, composed of the princes of the royal family, the great officers of state, &c., and one of representatives, elected after a complicated and far-from-popular manner, one to every 35,000 persons. The members are chosen every six years, and the assembly meets once a-year. According to the constitution, all citizens are eligible to the different offices of the state; religious liberty and freedom of opinion are granted to all, and no one can be imprisoned except by the sentence of a judge. These provisions are generally carried into practice, and, were it not for the rigid and jealous censorship of the press, Bavaria might boast of a good degree of civil and religious freedom. Unhappily, however, the true palladium of a free government, an unfettered press, has been unknown, and, in consequence, literature, education, and political discussion, have been stifled and depressed. Greater liberality in this respect, there can be no doubt, has now begun to prevail in Bavaria, and the time can not be far distant when this and other obstacles to the diffusion of intelligence and of liberty, will be removed.

Religion.—The Roman Catholics number about 3,000,000, the Lutherans about 1,250,000, the remainder of the population being Calvinists, Jews, &c. The Catholic is the established church, but the constitution guarantees the equality of the other sects.

Education.—The system of education is similar to that of Prussia, and of late years, instruction has been much diffused. There are three universities, at Munich, Wurzburg, and Erlangen. The first has about 1,300 students, and the two latter about 400 each. The sum of nearly $350,000 is annually devoted by government to the support of education.

Prison system at Munich.—This is worthy of attention. It is in some respects nearly similar to that which has been attended with such good results in the United States, and in one point, at least, superior. Every prisoner is obliged to work at his own trade, or to learn one from the instructions given him in the prison. Whatever he earns more than what is sufficient for his maintenance, is laid by, and given to him at the expiration of his imprisonment, deducting a sum for the expense of the establishment. The surplus thus

preserved for the benefit of the prisoners, after the required deduction, amounts to about $25,000 annually, and single prisoners at their discharge have received a sum equal to $350. The operation of this system has been attended with the best results. Many who have been taught trades in prison, have become respectable men, few cases of second imprisonments occur, and crime is said to be yearly decreasing.

Army.—The army is raised by conscription; the term of service is four years, and every male of proper age, the nobility and clergy excepted, is liable to service. The full complement of the army is over 71,000 men, but a large proportion of these are generally absent.

SAXONY.

The kingdom of Saxony belongs to the Germanic confederation. It lies between 50° 10′ and 51° 30′ N. latitude, and 12° and 15′ E. longitude, being about 140 miles in length, and 90 in breadth. Most of the surface is hilly or mountainous, but there is a considerable extent of plain surface extending along the frontier of Prussian Saxony. The area and population are stated on page 32.

Mining is one of the chief occupations of the Saxons. The *Erzhgeberge* mountains, on the southern frontier, produce a great variety of minerals. More than 500 mines are wrought, producing in silver and iron nearly 2,000,000 dollars annually, and giving occupation in mining and the manufacture of metallic products, to about 60,000 persons. Lead, bismuth, arsenic, antimony, cobalt, manganese, porcelain clay, marbles, several kinds of gems, &c., are also found. The agriculture of Saxony is well conducted, and the people in the rural districts are generally in a comfortable situation.

The most important manufactures of Saxony, are those of cotton goods and hosiery. Those of linen and woolen are also of considerable value. Wooden wares, furniture, musical instruments, &c., are also made; and, in short, Saxony supplies to Germany and to several foreign countries many articles both of use and of luxury. A great portion of the cotton goods and the stockings are imported into the United States. The city of Leipsic has for a long time been celebrated as one of the greatest book marts in the world.

Fairs are held several times a year, for the sale not only of books, but all sorts of merchandise, and they are attended by dealers from all parts of the world, sometimes to the number of more than 20,000. The annual produce from the sale of books alone at the Easter fair is estimated at $3,000,000.

Government.—The government of Saxony is a limited monarchy, with a senate and house of representatives. The qualifications requisite for a vote in the election of deputies and senators, and for a candidate for election, are so high as to virtually exclude all but the wealthy classes from participation in the government. The Saxons, however, are among the most contented, enlightened, and best educated of Europeans. In no country of Europe, is education more widely diffused, or are literature and the fine arts in a more flourishing condition.

Religion.—The reigning family is Roman Catholic, but the great bulk of the people are Lutherans.

Saxony was erected into a kingdom by Napoleon, in 1806, and the king adhered to the fortunes of his benefactor with admirable firmness. His good faith was repaid by the dismemberment of the kingdom by the treaty of Vienna in 1815, when several of its most valuable provinces were given to Prussia.

HANOVER.

The kingdom of Hanover is situated in the N.W. part of Germany, bounded N. by the German ocean and the river Elbe; E. by Prussia and Brunswick; S. by Prussia; and W. by Holland. It contains an area of 14,276 square miles, with a population of nearly 2,000,000. Nearly the whole country is low and flat, the surface forming a plain which slopes towards the N.W. On the coast, the land is below the sea level, and is preserved from inundation by dykes similar to those of Holland. The principal rivers are the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems, all flowing into the German ocean. A great portion of the soil is unsuitable for tillage, consisting of vast sand tracts, which extend across the kingdom, and occupy nearly one-sixth of its entire surface. The richest land is that near the mouths of the Elbe and the Weser.

Agriculture, &c.—The generally mediocre quality of the soil requires effective cultivation, in order to make it profitable to the

cultivator, but owing to the excessive division of the land, few proprietors are able to furnish a sufficient amount of capital for this purpose. The average property of three-fifths of the proprietors amounts to only twelve acres. Cattle breeding is carried on to a considerable extent, and timber is produced in large quantities. Potatoes are the universal food of the poor.

Mining.—Under a decent government, the mines of Hanover would become the means of great profit to the kingdom. The ores of iron, lead, copper, and silver, are plentiful among the Hartz mountains, and their yield of metal is very rich. But the absurd policy of the government, which keeps the mines in its own hands, has caused the mining industry to decay.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Hanover, notwithstanding its mineral wealth, and its navigable rivers, are of no great importance. The enterprise of the people has been effectually repressed by the absurd and tyrannical policy of the king. The manufacture of linen is the most extensive. Linens are exported to the amount of about 2,500,000 rix-dollars yearly. Cotton, woolen, and paper, are the only other manufactures of much value.

Government.—From 1714, when George I. was placed on the throne of England, till 1837, when William IV. died, England and Hanover were governed by the same sovereign. On the accession of Victoria, the salic law, which prevails in Hanover, rendered a male sovereign necessary to the latter country. Accordingly the Hanoverian crown was conferred on Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, the eldest surviving son of George III. This personage, probably one of the most depraved men, and one of the most tyrannical sovereigns who ever lived, immediately took measures to abolish whatever of freedom there was in the constitution of Hanover, and to arrogate to himself, as nearly as possible, a despotic power. In place of all other forms of administration, he substituted a cabinet council, composed of his own creatures, subservient to his single will, and was, until his death, the absolute monarch and despot of Hanover. Every coercive and restrictive measure usually resorted to by tyrants, was put in operation, and the country of course degenerated in every respect. As a single instance of this absurd and wicked policy, it may be mentioned that this king dismissed seven of the chief professors of the celebrated university of Gottingen, for presuming to doubt the king's power to absolve his subjects from their oaths!—and that the same university, which not many

years before was attended by from 1,500 to 1,900 students, had, after this transaction, less than 500.

Revenue, &c.—Hanover is very heavily taxed. The total revenue is made to amount to about $6,500,000. Every productive branch of industry is monopolized by the government, and duties are imposed upon every article of use or profit.

WIRTEMBERG.

THIS kingdom, one of the secondary states of the German confederation, is situated between Bavaria on the N. and E., and the lake of Constance and Baden on the S.W. and N.W. Its area is 7,658 square miles, and its population in 1852 amounted to 1,733,-243. The surface is generally mountainous, and the climate, though cool in the highlands, is mild in the valleys.

Agriculture is the principal occupation of the inhabitants. Corn is produced in sufficient quantities for exportation, potatoes are extensively raised, and vineyards are cultivated in many places, though the wine is not generally of first quality. The forests are a very important source of wealth. Agriculture is encouraged by the government, and is in a flourishing condition.

Manufactures of linen, cotton, woolen, beer, spirits, &c., are carried on to a considerable extent. Large quantities of wooden ware, toys, &c., are exported to all parts of Europe and to America. Tobacco-pipes, stockings, leather, glue, &c., are made in the chief towns. Raw products, however, such as cattle, wool, corn, timber, fruit, wine, salt, pitch and tar, constitute the principal exports. The total amount of imports and exports is estimated respectively at about $6,000,000 a year.

The Government is an hereditary limited monarchy, with a parliament of two chambers, the second of which, or house of representatives, is composed of certain dignitaries, noblemen, &c., deputies from the chief towns, and others chosen by the people, every six years. The great majority of the population are Lutherans. Education is widely diffused : a flourishing university exists at Tubingen, schools are established in every town and village, and very few persons are found who can not read and write. From the testimony of intelligent travelers, Wirtemberg would seem to be one of the most highly civilized countries of Europe. The people are said to

be moral, industrious, and intelligent, in a very high degree. Crimes are few, and extreme poverty and destitution are almost unknown.

Wirtemberg was a dukedom until shortly after the battle of Austerlitz in 1805, when the then duke was raised by Napoleon to the rank of king.

SWITZERLAND.

SWITZERLAND lies principally between 46° and 48° N. lat., and 6° and 11° E. longitude, having Germany on the N. and E., Italy on the S., and France on the W. Its greatest length is 210 miles, greatest breadth 140 miles. It constitutes a republic, formed by the union of 22 confederated states or cantons, having a population in the whole of about 2,500,000.

Physical Geography.—It has been aptly remarked, that "some idea may be formed of the Helvetic geography, by comparing the country to a large town, of which the valleys are the streets, and the mountains groups of contiguous houses." By far the greater portion of Switzerland consists of mountains, comprising many of the highest summits of the Alps. The most remarkable of these summits are Mount Rosa, 15,150, Mount Cervin, 14,836, the Finsteraarhorn, 14,085, the Monch, 13,497, and the Jungfrau, 13,717 feet in hight. The chief river is the Aar, which falls into the Rhine, after a course of 175 miles. Besides this, the Rhone, the Inn, the Ticino, and the Doubs have their sources in this country. The Swiss lakes are numerous and beautiful. They are navigable, and are remarkable for the depth and purity of their water, and their great variety of fish. The most celebrated are Lake Leman, or Geneva, and Lake Constance, each of which covers an area of more than 200 miles, with a depth of 1,000 feet. The mineral riches of the mountains are little known, a few iron mines being the only ones explored. There are numerous mineral springs, some of which furnish considerable quantities of salt. The climate is not only dependent on elevation, but on the influence exercised by the glaciers in cooling the atmosphere, the openings and exposure of the valleys, &c. The country is, however, much colder than is usual in the same latitude. The vegetables of nearly all the different zones of continental Europe are found in Switzerland.

Agriculture, &c.—Switzerland is almost entirely a pastoral country. Little corn is produced, and the crops are scanty and precarious. Cattle, sheep, and goats constitute the chief riches and dependence of the inhabitants. Rye, oats, barley, and maize are cultivated in some parts, and vines flourish in several of the cantons. Along the Rhine, apple, pear, and cherry orchards are numerous. Cheese is, and has long been, one of the most important articles of export. There are many varieties, the most celebrated of which are those of Schabzeiger, Neufchatel, and Gruyere. About 30,000 cwt. of Gruyere cheese is said to be annually exported.

Manufactures.—Some branches of manufactures are carried to a considerable extent. In the French cantons, watches, musical-boxes, jewelry, &c., are made, and in the east and north-east cantons, cotton and silk fabrics. Nearly 120,000 watches are annually made in Neufchatel, and many more in Geneva. An extensive trade is prosecuted in these and other articles with France.

Government.—The 22 cantons are united on equal terms in a confederation for mutual defense, but in most other respects each has its own independent internal administration. The government is now wholly republican; the canton of Neufchatel, in which the King of Prussia formerly exercised sovereignty, having lately declared itself independent. In some of the cantons the power is vested in a general assembly, chosen by all the citizens of full age, and, in others, in a council elected by the general assembly. The general Diet, or congress of the confederacy, is composed of deputies from all the cantons, two or three being sent from each, though each canton has but one vote. All national matters are managed by this Diet, which meets every second year or oftener, if required by any five of the cantons. Every Swiss is a soldier, and each canton contributes a fixed contingent when called upon. The total armed force in 1851 amounted to about 108,000 men.

Religion.—The number of Protestants is about one half greater than that of Catholics, and there are also about 2,000 Jews, who enjoy no political rights. In the Catholic cantons, generally, the utmost intolerance is exercised in reference to religion. In Valais every child must be brought up in the Catholic faith, and in other cantons no native can marry a Protestant without being deprived of all the rights of citizenship, and banished from the canton. The Swiss Protestant church is Presbyterian in its form.

Education is widely diffused. All children from five to eight

years old must receive some sort of education, otherwise their parents are subjected to a fine, and in some cases even to imprisonment. No child can exercise the rights of citizenship, without having received a certain degree of instruction. In every district there are primary schools, in which the elements of education are taught; and secondary schools for older pupils, in which they are instructed in languages, geometry, natural history, music, &c. There are universities at Basle, Berne, and Zurich.

About 1,500,000 of the Swiss speak a German dialect, 500,000 French, and about 125,000 a corrupt Italian. The Swiss are a brave people, attached to their homes and to freedom; but while their scanty means of subsistence, their peculiar situation, and the necessity of economy, have made them sober and industrious, the same circumstances have also made them mean and mercenary. No employment is too degrading, so they can make money by it. Though attached to freedom themselves, a few shillings a day will make them flock to the banner of its most inveterate enemy. For centuries the Swiss have been hired as mercenary soldiers by every nation in Europe, and they are still extensively employed by the pope, and the kings of Naples and Sardinia.

HOLLAND.

The kingdom of Holland lies between latitude 51° 12′ and 53° 30′ N., and longitude 30° 22′ and 7° 12′ E. It is bounded E. by Hanover and Rhenish Prussia; S. by Belgium, and W. and N. by the North Sea. It is divided into twelve provinces, having an aggregate area of 13,598 square miles, and population of 3,000,000. Its length is about 200 miles, and its average breadth about 65 miles. Nearly the whole of Holland is a continuous flat, partly formed by the deposits of rivers, and partly conquered by human labor from the sea, which is prevented from overflowing it by immense dykes or mounds, constructed with wonderful perseverance and industry. The climate is variable, and the atmosphere much loaded with moisture. The soil is generally alluvial clay and sand, so that very little mineral wealth exists. The aspect of this singular country is different from that of any other. Its surface presents one immense net-work of canals, which answer the purposes of roads in other countries. Some of these are navigated by

large vessels, and others are appropriated to the drainage of the land.

Agriculture.—The principal crops are those of rye and buckwheat, but in South Holland good wheat is cultivated. Flax, potatoes, mustard, tulips and other bulbous plants, wool, madder, barley and oats, are the other most important productions. The rearing of live-stock, and the sale of butter, cheese, and milk, are of greater value than tillage. The yearly export of cheese alone, is estimated at 350,000 cwt. The horned cattle are of fine breeds and of great beauty, but the sheep are indifferent, though they yield great quantities of coarse wool.

Manufactures.—The principal manufactures are those of woolen cloths, of silk, and velvet; paper, leather, cordage, hats, ribands, needles, white lead, borax, glue, vermilion, saltpeter, gin, and other liquors, &c. At Amsterdam, and other places, are many sugar refineries; at Utrecht and Leyden, large quantities of tiles and bricks are made; Amsterdam is famed for its lapidaries and diamond-cutters.

Commerce.—The commerce of Holland was once the most extensive in Europe, but has now greatly declined, though the Dutch are still in the enjoyment of a very large foreign trade. The imports chiefly consist of sugar, coffee, spices, tobacco, cotton, tea, cochineal, indigo, wine and brandy, grain of all sorts, timber, pitch, and tar, hemp and flax, iron, hides, linen, cotton and woolen stuffs, hardware, dried fish, coal, &c. The exports consist partly of the produce of Holland, partly of the produce of the Dutch possessions in the East and West Indies, and partly of commodities brought to her ports from different parts of Europe. Of the first class are cheese and butter (very important articles,) madder, rape, hemp and linseed, rape and linseed oils, Dutch linen, &c. Of the second class are spices, Mocha and Java coffee; sugars of Java, Brazil, and Cuba, cochineal, indigo, cotton, tea, tobacco, &c.; and of the third class, all kinds of grains, linens from Germany, timber, Spanish, German, and English wools, French, Rhenish, and Hungarian wines, brandy, &c. Holland possesses about 1,400 ships, exclusive of smaller vessels.

Government.—The government of Holland was formerly republican, but was formed into a kingdom by Napoleon in 1806. The monarchy is hereditary in the family of the princes of Orange.

The principal cities are Amsterdam, one of the most famous cities in the world, Rotterdam, Leyden, Utrecht,—the two latter are

celebrated for their universities,—and Hague, which is the seat of government.

BELGIUM.

In the year 1830, the provinces of Belgium, which had since 1815 constituted a part of the kingdom of Netherlands, revolted, and were recognized as an independent kingdom. Belgium lies between 49° 27′ and 51° 34′ N. lat., and 2° 37′ and 6° E. long.; and is bounded N. by Holland; E. by Prussia; S. by France, and W. by the North Sea. Its greatest length is about 193 miles, and its greatest breadth about 127 miles. The kingdom consists of nine provinces, viz.: Antwerp in the north-east and west, Flanders and Hainault in the west, Brabant in the center, Limburg and Liege in the east, Namur in the south, and Luxemburg in the south-east. The north and west provinces of Belgium, in their flatness, fertility, dykes, and canals, may be regarded as the continuation of Holland. This portion of the kingdom is so densely peopled that it presents the appearance of one vast continuous village. The south and east provinces are hilly, irregular, and more thinly peopled; but with the exception of these, the whole territory is nearly level, well watered, and fertile. The climate is less chilly and damp than that of Holland, and is generally temperate and healthy. In some places, however, the unwholesome vapors arising from low and marshy land, and from ditches and canals, are productive of much sickness. Nearly one-fifth of the surface of the kingdom is covered with forests and woods, the timber from which forms a very valuable article of trade. Belgium is well watered by the Scheldt, the Meuse, and their branches, and by numerous canals, fed by these rivers.

Mineral Products, &c.—Mining forms one of the most important branches of the national industry of Belgium. The coal mines in particular are most productive and valuable, those of Hainault alone yielding a greater quantity of coal than the whole produce of France. Mines of iron are numerous, and copper, zinc, sulphur, marble, paving slabs, slates, mill-stones, &c. are mined and quarried in various parts of the country.

Agriculture, &c.—Corn, flax, hemp, and timber, constitute the most important agricultural wealth of Belgium. The soil produces

more than double the quantity of corn required for the consumption of the inhabitants. Agriculture has indeed long been in an advanced state. Every possible care is taken to enrich the soil by artificial means, every species of manure being assiduously collected and skillfully applied. Numerous extensive gardens are cultivated for the production of vegetables, fruits and flowers, and excellent wine is made in several localities.

Manufactures.—Woolen cloths of the most excellent quality are extensively manufactured. At the city of Verviers alone, upwards of 40,000 operatives are employed in this branch of industry, producing annually cloths worth over $5,000,000. In several towns, great quantities of carpeting are made. The most extensive carpet manufactory of Europe is at Tournay. It produces all kinds of what are called Brussels carpets, and gives employment to nearly 2,000 workmen. The linen cloths of Belgium have long been celebrated for their excellent quality. In the various operations of spinning flax, weaving, and bleaching, more than 400,000 persons are engaged. Immense quantities of flax are annually raised, and are purchased by the English, French, and other nations. The manufacture of printed cottons, calicoes, &c., is also extensively carried on. "Brussels lace" is in demand every where, and is superior to any other in the world. Other kinds of fine lace are manufactured at different places. The manufacture of silk is successfully prosecuted, the beauty and quality of some kinds of silk-stuffs being unsurpassed. The making of ribbons gives employment to more than 12,000 persons, that of hosiery to 50,000, that of hats in Liege alone to 6,000. Other valuable and important arts and manufactures, in which the Belgians excel, are those of printing, lithography, musical and mathematical instruments, leather, fire-arms, nails, cutlery, porcelain, glass, spirits—especially gin, beer, &c. Since the establishment of Belgium as an independent kingdom, a very rapid progress has been made in almost every department of manufacturing and commercial industry. Her commerce extends its relations to numerous parts of the world, and includes every species of indigenous and foreign production. The principal ports are Antwerp and Ostend, and the principal commercial and manufacturing cities are Brussels (the capital), Ghent, Liege, Namur, Tournay, Ypres, Mons, Louvain, Verviers, and Mechlin.

Roads, &c.—After England, Belgium possesses the best constructed and most numerous lines of roads. They are broad and

regular, and are kept in the best condition. The Belgian government was the first in Europe to plan and execute a general system of *railroads*. This was commenced in 1834. The city of Mechlin was made the center of the system, and the object proposed was to connect all the principal commercial towns with the sea on the one side, and with the frontiers of France and Prussia on the other. Four principal branches. have been completed, extending from Mechlin north to Antwerp, east to Louvain, Liege, Verviers, and the frontiers of Prussia, and continued by a private company to Cologne and Bonn; south through Brussels and the province of Hainault to Valenciennes in France, and west by Ghent and Bruges to Ostend. From Ghent a railroad runs to Lille, and connects with the great northern railroad from Paris. A branch from Valenciennes connects with the latter road, and forms a direct route between Paris and Brussels, a distance of 370 miles. These railroads, and the cars or carriages used upon them, are well constructed, the fares are cheap, and the speed great.

The Belgian canals are of great importance in the transport of freight between the chief towns. The whole number of canals is between twenty and thirty, having an aggregate length of about 300 miles, and the course of the rivers amounts to about 600 miles.

Population.—The population of Belgium, by the census of 1849, amounted to 4,359,090, comprising the different races of Germans, Flemings, Walloons, and Jews. The French language is used in public affairs, and by the educated and wealthy classes. The Flemings in general speak a dialect of the Dutch, and the Walloons, who amount to about 1,300,000, a dialect of the ancient French.

Arts and Sciences, Education, &c.—Since the independence of Belgium, a great spirit of emulation and desire of improvement has arisen among all classes of the population. Original works, and compositions of high character, are constantly contributing towards the foundation of a national literature. The government sustains and encourages the progress of science, learning, and the fine arts. Pensions are given to enable young men of talent to study the arts, and a national exhibition is opened each year, at which are displayed the works of the best artists. Architecture has been carried to the highest degree of perfection. The splendid cathedrals and town halls, built in the middle ages, are wonders of architectural skill. Learned societies, devoted to various objects, are numerous. The universities of Ghent, Liege, Louvain, and

Brussels are among the most celebrated in Europe. Academies of painting are very numerously attended in several of the cities. Painting, indeed, has long been a favorite art in Belgium, and has been illustrated by some most renowned masters. Schools of all kinds have been established for general education, but the system of primary instruction is defective, and the number of scholars in primary schools is not as large as it should be.

Religion.—Nearly the whole population are Roman Catholics. There are only about 13,000 Protestants, and 1100 Jews. The fullest liberty is, however, allowed in the expression of religious opinions and the choice of modes of worship. The incomes of the ministers of each denomination are derived from the national treasury.

Government.—Belgium is governed by a constitutional monarchy, under a dynasty freely elected by the constituents of the nation. The constitution, decreed by the national congress in 1831, places all governmental power in the nation, operating by means of the representative system. It establishes individual liberty, the inviolability of every man's house and property, the perfect liberty and independence of religious worship and opinions, the right of assembling and associating, the liberty of the press, the liberty of teaching, ministerial responsibility, and the independence of the judicial power. In short, the whole system of government is based upon principles of rational freedom and liberality. The right of suffrage is not yet, however, universal, being limited by certain property qualifications. Punishment of death has been abolished, and the trial by jury has been established.

Army.—The quota of the Belgian army is fixed every year by a law. It consists at present of 100,000 men. A permanent camp is established on the Campine plain, near the frontier of Holland. It is yearly extended, and has become a well-situated and well-built military town. A burgher guard is also raised for the maintenance of order, and preserving the territory from invasion. It consists of 90,000 men.

DENMARK.

THE kingdom of Denmark consists partly of the peninsula comprising the provinces of Jutland and the duchies of Schleswig-Hol-

stein and Lauenburg, and partly of the adjacent islands of Zealand, Funen, &c. Except on the S. and S. E., continental Denmark is every where bounded by the sea. The kingdom lies between 53° and 58° N. latitude, and 8° and 13° E. longitude, having an area of 21,856 square miles, and containing a population, in 1853, of about 2,500,000. There are no mountains, and few hills in Denmark, the surface being generally low and level, and the coasts rising very little above the sea. In southern portions, the soil is exceedingly fertile, being very rich marsh land, producing the finest pasture and excellent crops. In other parts, especially in the center and N. W. part of Jutland, the soil is arid, sandy, and barren. With the exception of the Eyder, there are no rivers of any magnitude. The continental portion of the country is intersected by numerous inlets of the sea, or lagoons, called fiords by the Danes, which are generally too shallow for navigation, but abound in fish. The climate is humid, and fogs are very prevalent. The winters are severe, the summers hot, and in the spring violent winds prevail.

Products, Agriculture, &c.—The horses and cattle of the duchies and of West Jutland are among the best any where produced, and great numbers are annually exported. "Hamburg beef" is supplied by the marsh land oxen, and is considered excellent. Pigs are raised in great numbers, and quantities of bacon are sent to Norway, Holland, &c. Poultry is abundant, and feathers form a valuable article of export.

The peasantry of Denmark were formerly in the most depressed state imaginable, being absolute slaves. But since 1788, when they were finally emancipated from political bondage, their condition has been gradually improving. Nearly half the country now belongs to peasants, who have purchased small portions of the soil by their earnings. They are all anxious to become proprietors, and as soon as they are able, they buy a house, with a few acres of land, or they hire the house and land of some larger proprietor, and pay for it in labor. The condition of the lower classes is usually very comfortable, more so indeed than in almost any other country of Europe. Agriculture has most wonderfully improved within fifty years, and is at present in an advanced condition. One of the chief obstacles to agricultural improvement is the badness of the roads, a consequence of the difficulty of procuring material for their construction. Barley, oats, and wheat, are largely cultivated, but the greatest attention is paid to grazing, fatting, and the dairy. Horses, cattle, salted

pork and beef, butter, wool, and other animal products, are the great articles of export. Manufactures are not prosperous, owing partly to natural and partly to political causes. Being nearly destitute of coal, of water power, and of the useful minerals, Denmark has no natural facilities for the successful prosecution of manufactures. Nearly all branches of industry, too, are subjected to the government of guilds or corporations. No person can engage in any business till he has been authorized by its particular guild; and as this is rarely obtained without a considerable sacrifice, the effect of the system is to fetter competition and improvement, and to perpetuate monopoly and routine. The principal branches of manufacture are those of distillation and brewing, which are carried to a great extent in Copenhagen, and several other places. There are also some manufactories of cloths, earthenware, paper, leather, &c., but they are generally far from being prosperous. Lately a good many flour mills have been constructed, and considerable quantities of flour are now exported from some of the towns.

The commerce of Denmark is not extensive, but has improved since the peace of 1815. The exports consist of the agricultural products already mentioned, with fish, spirits, beer, and a few other articles. The imports are manufactured goods, hardware, wine, oil, fruit, timber, iron, salt, coal, hemp, flax, &c. The possession of the island of St. Croix, in the West Indies, is of considerable importance to the commerce of Denmark. This small but well cultivated island produces annually about 25,000,000 lbs. of sugar, and 1,400,000 gallons of rum.

Government.—The supreme government is conducted, under the king, by a privy council, and by departments of colleges, each having a minister at its head. Provincial states are established in the four provinces of the monarchy, to which the landholders, the cities and towns, send representatives. They deliberate on all public measures, and their consent is necessary to all laws affecting the imposition of taxes, or the rights or property of individuals, and a report of their proceedings is printed. The duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg form part of the Germanic confederation, and by virtue of these the king has a vote in the German Diet. The lowest courts of justice consist of a judge and secretary, chosen by the proprietors of the district, and confirmed by the king. From these an appeal may be made to one of the five provincial courts, and thence either to the supreme court for Denmark proper at Copenhagen,

or to that for the duchies of Kiel. But in order to diminish the expenses of justice, a very sensible provision has been made, worthy of imitation elsewhere. All civil cases must at first be carried before a *commission of conciliation*, composed of the most respectable and intelligent men in the neighborhood of the disputing parties. Its sittings are private, and if both parties agree to abide by its decision, it has the effect of law, and is registered accordingly. No institution could be better devised to secure substantial justice, and to prevent the expenses and vexations consequent upon rash appeals to courts of law. As a proof of its excellence, it is enough to state that more than five sixths of the suits that occur in the kingdom are disposed of by its means.

Religion, Education, &c.—The established religion is the Lutheran, but the most perfect toleration is practiced in regard to other sects. The bishops are nominated by the crown.

Education is widely diffused, there being very few persons, even among the lower classes, who are unable to read and write. Besides the universities of Copenhagen and Kiel, there are colleges at Soroe and Altona, with grammar schools and academies at all the considerable towns. All children from seven to fourteen years old are obliged by law to attend some public school, and those whose parents can not pay the fees are educated at the public expense.

Army and Navy.—The army consists partly of regular troops and partly of militia, who are occasionally called out to be exercised. The peasantry are also liable to compulsory service in the army, a certain number being chosen by lot for that purpose, in each district, according to its population, or the exigencies of the state. The regular army amounts nominally to about 30,000 men. The navy consists of about thirty ships, with gunboats, &c.

SWEDEN.

SWEDEN forms the eastern and southern part of the Scandinavian peninsula. It lies between lat. 55° 20′ and 69° N., and long. 11° 18′ and 24° 13′ E.; bounded N. and W. by Norway, E. and S. by the Gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic, S. W. by the Kattegat and Skagerrack. Its length is about 950 miles, and its average breadth 190 miles. The area of Sweden is about 170,700 square miles, and the population (1845) 316,536. The Scandinavian Alps, or Dofra-

field mountains, divide Sweden from Norway. Their loftiest peak is 6,552 feet in hight. With the exception of a few hills and ranges of high ground, Sweden is a remarkably level country. In the southern parts are vast sandy plains, some of which are barren, interspersed with small lakes and hills; in the north are found sandy wastes and extensive forests, alternating with mountains and glens; in the central regions are broad table-lands, covered with forests. The principal rivers are the Tornea, the Angerman, the Umea, and the Windel, falling into the Gulf of Bothnia. These rivers are from two to three hundred miles in length, and the Angerman, which is the largest, is navigable for large ships to the distance of 70 miles. Besides these, numerous smaller rivers run into the Baltic, but the navigation of these is rendered difficult and dangerous by rocks and cataracts. There are no less than 80 considerable lakes, the largest of which, the second European lake in size, is Lake Wener, 99 miles long by 56 miles in its greatest breadth. Lake Wetter, the next in size, is 86 miles long by 16 broad. The Malar lake is an inlet of the sea, about 70 miles long, and from 2 to 20 broad.

Climate.—In the north the cold is severe, and the mountains are covered with snow for five or six months during the year, but in the central portions the winter rarely lasts over three or four months, and in the south and west the climate is very similar to that of the north of Germany. On the whole, the climate is remarkably mild, considering its high latitude.

Mineral Products.—Sweden is rich in mineral products. Among these are iron, copper, cobalt, zinc, lead, antimony, gold and silver, alum, niter, sulphur, porphyry, marble, alabaster, &c. The Swedish iron is the best in Europe, and is extensively mined. Copper and lead are the only other metals the ores of which are worth working. Very little coal, and that of an inferior quality, has been discovered, and salt is wholly imported.

Agriculture, &c.—The chief agricultural products of Sweden are rye, barley, oats, wheat, maslin (a mixture of barley and oats), potatoes, hemp, flax, &c., and most of the fruits of western Europe. Rye is cultivated principally in the south, and barley in the north. Wheat succeeds as far north as 63°; oats seldom ripen north of 63° 20′, but barley is produced nearly up to 69° 30′; hops are cultivated up to 62°, tobacco to 62° 30′, and flax nearly to 64°. The uncertainty of the climate, and the chances of early frost, are the great-

est obstacles in the way of the agriculturist. The soil is generally thin and poor, and requires great industry in order to make it productive. The best portions of soil are those around Lake Wener, and those between Lake Wetter and the Baltic. In these parts, agriculture is in a very flourishing condition, the land is well cultivated, and yields a large produce. A great portion, no less than four-sevenths, of Sweden is covered with forests. Of the 170,715 square miles of surface, arable lands are estimated to occupy 3,490; meadows and pasturage 7,385; uncultivated mountain and forest land, 137,620; lakes and marshes, 22,055.

Fisheries form a considerable branch of industry. Formerly herrings were exceedingly plentiful on the coast, but their numbers have greatly decreased, and their place is supplied by the stremming, a fish of fine flavor, and about the size of a sprat. This fish is taken in the Gulfs of Finland and Bothnia in great quantities, and after being cured in the same way as the herring, it forms a favorite dish with the people. The salmon fisheries are exceedingly productive and valuable. The seas around Sweden abound with fish, such as sturgeon, cod, turbot, sole, mackerel, &c.

Mines.—Sweden contains nearly 600 mines, about one half of which are situated in the central provinces. Swedish iron is of very superior quality. The annual quantity produced, is about 90,000 tons, of which 70,000 are exported. The copper mines produce only about 750 tons a year, and the quality of the copper is not very good. Every forge and furnace pays an annual duty to the crown; the iron-works are licensed to produce certain quantities only, and a troublesome and impolitic set of restrictions are imposed upon the whole business. The government has, by this course, prevented the full development of the mining resources of the country.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Sweden are not very extensive. The Swedish peasantry generally make their own agricultural implements, household furniture, and nearly all the coarse cotton, linen, and woolen stuffs required for their own use. There are, however, a number of factories for the finer kinds of woven fabrics, sail-cloth, handkerchiefs, glass, fire-arms, paper, soap, leather, rope, tobacco, &c., besides sugar refineries, dyeing establishments, machine shops, &c. The whole number of factories of all kinds, in 1839, was 2,097, of looms 2,177, and of workmen in all departments of manufacturing industry 14,861, producing goods to the value of rather more than $5,500,000. Ardent spirits are extensively con-

sumed by the Swedes. Every land proprietor has a right to distil spirits, upon paying a certain duty to government. It is stated that in 1829, there were 167,744 stills in operation, and the estimated amount of spirits consumed is more than 25,000,000 gallons—an annual average, taking the population at 3,900,000, of 8⅓ gallons to every individual! Drunkenness is the besetting vice of the Swedes.

Trade.—The exports of Sweden consist of iron and timber (the most important articles), copper, alum, tar, corn, cobalt, &c. The imports comprise sugar, coffee, salt, wine, silk, wool, cotton, hemp, hides, oil, &c. The foreign trade is most extensively carried on with the United States and Great Britain, and the chief commercial towns are Stockholm and Gottenburg. In 1840, the total value of exports was 20,434,000 rix-dollars banco (the rix-dollar banco is equal to about 40 cents), and that of imports was 18,308,000.

The government is a monarchy, hereditary in the male line, with a representative assembly or diet. The king must be a Lutheran. He is assisted by a state council, composed of ten members, including the ministers. The king controls the army and foreign relations, nominates to all appointments, presides in the supreme court, and grants pardons; but for other purposes he cannot act without the concurrence of the council. The Diet, or assembly, has four separate chambers, consisting respectively of deputies from the nobility, clergy, burghers, and peasants. It meets every five years. The chambers deliberate and vote separately, but all questions, before being decided, are referred to a joint committee, consisting of an equal number of members from each order. The king has a vote on all decrees.

Religion.—Nearly all the people are Lutherans, there being only about 2,000 Catholics and 1,000 Jews. All sects are tolerated, but none but Lutherans can receive any state appointment.

Public Instruction, &c.—Elementary instruction is in a very advanced state. Every adult must be able to read the Scriptures before he can exercise any act of majority, and it is said that there is not one in 1,000 of the adult population not able to read. There are two universities, those of Upsal and Lund, at either of which the instruction is of a most excellent kind. The sum of about $400,000 is yearly appropriated to the use of universities, schools, &c. The press is free, every man being responsible for what he publishes. The arts and sciences have flourished in Sweden, and she has produced some most distinguished authors and men of science.

Army.—The Swedish army consisted, in 1853, of 144,013 men.

Navy.—The naval force consisted, in 1840, of 10 ships of the line, 8 frigates, 8 brigs, 247 gunboats, together with sundry steam vessels, &c. The number of seamen employed by government is about 30,000.

Within the past twenty years Sweden has progressed rapidly in point of population, industry, national resources and wealth. To King Charles John, formerly Marshal Bernadotte, is due the credit of having in a great measure effected this improvement. Few princes can claim a more just title to the love and veneration of their subjects. King Oscar I., the son of Charles John, was raised to the throne on the death of his father.

NORWAY.

NORWAY forms the western portion of the Scandinavian peninsula. It is bounded on the N. and W. by the North Sea and the Atlantic and Arctic oceans; S. by the Skagerrack, which separates it from Denmark, and E. by Sweden and Russian Lapland. Its extreme length is about 1,150 miles; its breadth varies greatly, averaging about 50 miles towards the north, and 250 miles in the S. Its area is estimated at 122,008 square miles; and its population in 1845 amounted to 1,138,470. Norway at present is united to the crown of Sweden. The *fjelds* and *fjords* of Norway are its chief physical characteristics. The first are lofty mountain plateaux in the interior, and the second are deep indentations or arms of the sea all around the coast. Almost the entire country is covered with mountains. The main chain, called the *Kiolen* (or Keel), separates Norway from Sweden, as far down as lat. 63°, and then tends to the S. W. Different portions of this chain are called Dovrefjeld, Langefjeld, &c. Some of the Norwegian mountains are from 6,000 to 8,000 feet high. The fjords resemble the Scotch salt-water *lochs*. On the W. coast some of them stretch inland for 100 miles in a direct line, and are of the greatest use as means of communication. Lakes are numerous, but not so large as those of Sweden. On the W. coast are great numbers of islands, the principal of which are the Loffoden isles. At the S. extremity of this group is the celebrated Maelstrom.

The *climate* of Norway varies greatly, according to the elevation

of the surface and the difference of latitude; but generally the summers are short, and the changes sudden and extreme. In Christiania, fires cannot be dispensed with from September to May. The summer comes on suddenly; the heat is often great, and in some places vegetation is so rapid that corn is sowed and reaped within six weeks.

Agriculture, &c.—The Norwegians are essentially a pastoral and agricultural people. In 1835, out of a total male population of 585,381, 309,000 were connected with agriculture; 28,903 with navigation and fisheries; 23,145 with commerce and manufactures. The land is mostly the property of those who cultivate it. Only about the one-hundredth part of the entire surface is supposed to be under culture, and the arable land is generally poor and sandy. The harvests are precarious, and, in bad years, considerable supplies of corn must be imported. In some parts, especially in the north, the inner bark of the fir-tree is used instead of, or together with, corn, for making bread. The cultivation of the potato has been extensively carried on, however, of late years, and has afforded in a great measure a substitute for corn crops, when the latter fail. Cattle breeding is the most profitable branch of rural industry; and milk and dairy produce are among the chief articles of food. The live stock often suffers from the depredations of bears and wolves, the hunting of which forms a favorite pursuit with many of the people. The inhabitants of the coast place great dependence on the eggs of aquatic birds, which frequent the shores in immense numbers. Above 65°, the people subsist chiefly by fishing and the produce of herds of reindeer. The Loffoden islands are the principal seat of an important cod-fishery, the average value of the fish caught there being more than $400,000. In every fjord, also, plenty of cod, whiting, haddock, flounders, herrings, &c., are caught for daily use.

The *Forests* of Norway are very valuable, and timber is one of the chief articles of export. The trade in timber, however, is not so great as might be expected from the immense extent of forest land. This is owing to the lack of navigable rivers, canals, and roads, rendering it difficult to convey the timber to the coast.

Mineral products are various and abundant. The Norwegian iron is of excellent quality, and plentifully found. Copper is also found in several places. A silver mine near Kongsburg has been worked for 200 years, and was once accounted the richest in Europe. Lead, arsenic, and a little gold, salt, alum, &c., are among the other mineral products.

The *Manufactures* of Norway are almost wholly domestic. The agricultural peasant builds his own house, makes his own furniture, and, indeed, unites all trades in his own person. The farmers and country people spin their own flax and wool, and weave their own clothes. The whole number of manufacturing establishments in 1829 was stated at 337, but of these 138 were distilleries and 80 tobacco factories. Commerce is in a depressed condition. The principal exports are timber, fish, and other native produce.

Government.—Though Norway belongs to the crown of Sweden, yet the connection between the two countries is far from being intimate. The constitution differs from that of Sweden. The government is a hereditary monarchy, with a democratic assembly, called *Storthing*. This consists of about 100 members, elected by the people at large, property and other qualifications being requisite for the privilege both of electing and being elected. The crown has no organ or representative in this assembly. The elections take place every third year, and, when elected, the Storthing divides into an upper and a lower house. After a bill has passed both houses, it receives the sanction of the king, in order to become a law; but in case a bill pass through three successive Storthings, the royal assent may be dispensed with. This right the Norwegians exerted when they abolished their hereditary nobility in 1821.

The *Religion* of Norway is the Lutheran; and all sects of Christians are tolerated, but Jews and Jesuits are not allowed to settle in the country, or to remain in for more than a few hours at a time.

In 1837 about one-seventh of the population were receiving public instruction. Schools are numerous, and there are 13 colleges in the principal towns, for superior education. Christiania contains a university, with from 600 to 800 students. Sunday-schools and public libraries are maintained in almost every parish. The press of Norway is free, and more than twenty newspapers and several scientific journals are published.

The army consisted in 1851 of 23,484 men; the navy 2 frigates, 10 smaller vessels and five steamers, having in all 50,000 men. The public revenue of 1851–54 was estimated at $3,200,000.

RUSSIA.

THE Russian empire is the most extensive in the world. It includes nearly one-seventh of the terrestrial part of the globe, reaching from the frontiers of Posen and the Gulf of Bothnia on the W., to the Pacific Ocean and Behring's Straits on the E., a distance of nearly 6,000 miles, with an average breadth of about 1,500. Besides this, Russia owns a large tract in the N.W. part of America, and is mistress of several large islands in the Arctic Ocean and Baltic Sea.

Total population according to census of 1850 consisted, European Russia 62,088,000; Asiatic Russia, comprising Siberia, 2,937,000; Transcansian provinces 2,648,000; Russian America 61,000, making a total of 67,734,000. The whole area in geographical square miles in the same year, was, for the whole of the Russian empire, 6,006,010.

Face of the Country, &c.—Russia is generally level, and comprises some of the most extensive plains in the world. European is divided from Asiatic Russia by the Ural mountains, which extend from the Caspian Sea to the Arctic Ocean. In all the vast country to the W. of these mountains, there is scarcely a single hill. The forests of Russia are immense, covering more than one-third of the surface.

Rivers.—The principal rivers of Russia in Europe, are the Dwina, running into the Arctic Ocean, the Neva, the Duna, and the Niemen, into the Baltic; the Dniester, Dnieper, Bug, and Don, into the Black Sea; and the Volga into the Caspian. Owing to the flatness of the country, and the great length of their course, the rivers of Russia are little interrupted by cataracts, flow with a tranquil stream, and afford great facilities for internal navigation. The lakes, as well as the rivers, are on a large scale; Lake Ladoga is the most extensive. In Finland the lakes are very numerous.

Soil and Climate.—These must of course differ greatly in so vast a country. The most valuable portion of the empire, or that included between the Baltic, the Gulf of Finland, and the Volga, on the N. and E., the Black Sea on the S., and Austria, Prussia, Poland, &c., on the W., has generally a soft, black mold, mostly on a sandy bottom, easily wrought, and very fertile. Almost every kind of climate is met with. "When spring," says a traveler, "commences in one division of this vast empire, another experiences all the rigors of winter. Here the parched camel traverses arid, burning deserts; there the reindeer courses over heaps of snow, under which he finds a scanty supply of moss." But notwithstanding the heat that pre-

vails in summer, especially in the southern provinces, cold, generally speaking, predominates in Russia, and increases in intensity as we approach N. and E. The fruits of temperate climates are seldom met with above the fifty-second degree of latitude.

Minerals, Metals, &c.—The mines of Russia are of considerable value. Gold, platina, silver, copper, and iron are found in the Ural and Altai mountains. The iron mines furnish a large supply, and those in the Ural mountains alone are said to employ above 50,000 laborers. The total product of iron amounts to about 180,000 tons. Salt mines and springs are abundant, but as most of them are at a distance from the western provinces, there is a large importation of salt from England and Austria.

Agriculture.—Landed property in Russia is generally divided into estates, belonging either to the crown or the nobility. Some of the nobles possess immense estates, the peasants occupying which are in a state of absolute slavery. The value of a Russian estate, indeed, formerly depended more on the number of peasants upon it, who may be either sold or let out by the proprietor, than on its extent or the quality of the soil. This is now, however, not so generally the case, since the population has increased, and the proprietor sometimes becomes burdened with the charge of supporting laborers, on whom he is obliged to pay a tax to the government, and for whose service he has little or no use. Proprietors usually content themselves with distributing their property among the peasantry, receiving a tax imposed on each male, by way of rent. The absolute power of the owner to retake his property, or to increase the tax, must obviously tend to extortion and injustice, and consequently to indolence and discouragement on the part of the tenantry. Owing to this system, and to other concurrent circumstances, the state of agriculture is in general at a low ebb. In some provinces, however, particularly in those on the Baltic, the husbandry is very superior. The products raised must differ according to soil and climate. All sorts of corn are raised; rye in the greatest quantity, since it is the common food of the peasantry. Next to rye is oats, and the value of the crops of these two, is supposed to be more than double that of all other kinds of grain. Horses and cattle are raised in immense numbers. Tallow is, and has long been, the most important article of export. Wool is also exported in considerable quantities, and Russian hog's bristles are every where used.

Manufactures.—The government has attempted the improvement

and extension of manufactures, but owing to the erroneous system of duties and prohibitions, the slavery of the peasants, the thinness of the population, and other drawbacks, they are not generally in an advanced state. In certain departments, however, Russia is equal or even superior to other countries. Her leather is excellent, and for some purposes, such as book-binding, is better than any other. Owing to some undiscovered reason, none of the attempts to produce Russian leather in foreign countries have ever succeeded. The sail-cloth, cordage, and canvas, felt, isinglass, spirits, and some other articles brought from Russia, are as good or better than those of any other country. Cloth, linen, silk, cotton, glass, paper, snuff and cigars, earthenware, jewelry, &c., are manufactured in various places, and the amount of capital and number of laborers employed in these branches is rapidly increasing. Industry of all sorts has made an astonishing progress since the peace of 1815. This is strikingly evinced by the fact, that in the government of Moscow, in 1820, there were only two steam engines, while in 1830, there were 100. The same government, in 1839, had 1,058 factories, and 83,654 work-people. Since 1836, lectures have been instituted in all the Russian universities, for the instruction of manufacturers and workmen in mechanics, chemistry, &c. In 1841 the total value of manufactures was about 650,000,000 of rubles, or over $100,000,000.

Commerce.—The chief articles of export are tallow, grain, hemp and flax, timber, potatoes, bristles, linseed and hempseed, leather, fox, hare, and squirrel skins, canvas and coarse linen, cordage, wool, wax, isinglass, tar, &c. The principal trading ports are Petersburgh and Riga on the Baltic, Archangel on the White Sea, Odessa on the Black Sea, Taganrog on the Sea of Azof, and Astrachan on the Caspian. Moscow is the chief *entrepôt* of the interior commerce of the empire. Great fairs are held each year at several of the towns, where goods of immense value are offered for sale. That of Nijni Novgorod is celebrated all over Europe.

The revenue from customs in 1851 was 30,529,927 rubles, total revenue $75,348,000; public debt $483,000,000. The total commercial operations of Russia, which, on the average, have amounted to $132,472,000 yearly, for the triennial term of 1850–1 and 52, of which $65,424,000 were for importations, and $67,068,000 for exportations. The United States represents about 3 millions, or little more than 2 per cent., of which $1,584,666.42 were for importations to Russia, and $1,432,666.44 for exportations from that country.

Internal Communications.—The great road from Petersburgh to Moscow is a most magnificent public work. It is nearly 500 miles in length, quite level, macadamized throughout, and kept in perfect repair. There is now being built a railroad between the same cities, which, when completed, will be one of the best in the world. It is a gratifying evidence of American skill and enterprise, that this great undertaking was superintended by Major Whistler of Massachusetts, a most accomplished engineer, and that the cars and locomotives to be employed on it are contracted for by a Philadelphia house. But with the exception of this and a few other national lines, there is a great lack of good roads in Russia. The inconvenience felt from this circumstance, is, however, less than might be expected, since the worst roads are so frozen during the greater part of the year as to be fit for sledge traveling, and since the navigable rivers are so numerous, and so many canals have been constructed. Few countries, in fact, have so extensive a command of internal navigation. Goods may be conveyed from Petersburgh to Astrachan, a distance of 1,500 miles, or to any port on the Caspian, without once being landed. The iron of Siberia, and the teas of China, are received at Petersburgh in the same way. Immense quantities of goods are also conveyed on sledges over the ice, during the winter, to the different ports. The importance of this inland navigation may be estimated from the fact, that in 1839 no fewer than 46,850 boats, and 17,469 rafts, arrived at the great ports and emporiums of the empire, bringing goods worth 538,921,730 rubles.

The silver ruble is worth from 75 to 100 cents, and the paper ruble, which is the basis of all commercial calculation, is equivalent to a franc, or about 18 cents, and is divided into 100 copper coins, called kopecks. The only gold coin, in Russia, is worth 20 francs.

The Government.—In Russia all power emanates from the sovereign, whose authority is uncontrolled, except by the respect he may yield to established customs, to the privileges of certain classes, and the prejudices of the people. The will of the monarch has no legal limits, so that he may be said to be absolute. He is the central point of the administration, his decisions are law, every thing emanates from him, every thing is referred to him. The public business is transacted, under the emperor, by different boards, councils or colleges, each having separate functions. The imperial council of the emperor consists of a president and an indefinite number of mem-

bers, of which the ministers always make a part. It is divided into the five departments of legislation, war, civil and religious affairs, finance, and the affairs of Poland; and superintends all matters connected with the internal administration of the empire. The second college, or senate, is considered the most important body in the state. It is the high court of justice, and controls all the inferior tribunals. The members are nominated by the emperor, to the number of about 100. This senate is divided into eight committees, or sections, five of which sit at Petersburgh and three at Moscow. The senators are mostly persons of high rank and station, and a lawyer of eminence presides over each department, who represents the emperor, and whose signature is indispensable to its decisions. The senate also examines into the public revenue and expenditure, inquires into public abuses, appoints to a great variety of offices, and has the power of remonstrance with the emperor. The third college is the *Holy Synod;* it superintends all the religious affairs of the country, and is composed of the principal dignitaries of the church. All its decisions must be approved by the emperor. The fourth college consists of the *Committee of Ministers,* of whom there are eleven. They communicate directly with the emperor, and have charge of the various affairs of the imperial household, finance, war, public instruction, post-office, roads, and public buildings, &c. The empire is divided into general governments, or vice-royalties, governments, and districts. These vary in number. There were in 1840, 14 of the first, 50 or 51 of the second, and above 320 of the last. The viceroy, or general governor, commands the forces, and controls all civil and military affairs, representing the emperor, and being responsible to him. A civil governor, representing the general governor, assisted by a council, is established in each government or province. There are also in each government a council of finance, presided over by a vice-governor, a college of general provision, which directs the prisons, work-houses, schools, &c., and a college of medicine, which attends to the public health, appoints district physicians, inspects drugs, &c. The districts each have their local functionaries, and each town has a commandant, appointed by the crown, who has charge of all town affairs. The Russian judicial system is complicated, and not easily understood. There are civil and criminal courts in every circle, and a supreme court of justice in every government, to which cases decided in the inferior courts may be appealed. Its sentence is final in criminal cases, and to the

extent of 500 rubles in civil cases. Those involving a greater amount may be appealed to the senate.

Divisions of the People.—The people of Russia are divided into four classes: 1. Nobles; 2. Clergy; 3. Burghers, Merchants, and Farmers; and 4. Peasants, or slaves.

1. *Nobles.*—The arrangement of the nobility was effected by Peter the Great. For the purpose of undermining the influence of the then nobility, who were exclusively possessed of all the places of trust and emolument, he divided all the civil and military functionaries in the service of the state into fourteen classes, enacting that the eight highest classes should confer the distinction of hereditary nobility, some of the others that of personal nobility, or nobility for life, and that those enrolled in the others should be deemed gentlemen. The creation of a new nobility, founded on merit, or on state services, was at the time, no doubt, a material improvement. By illustrating new families, it lessened the influence of the old nobility, and opened a prospect of distinction to enterprising individuals. But at present the system seems to be troublesome and oppressive, and might be advantageously abandoned. In 1836, the order of nobility comprised 691,355 persons, of whom 538,160 enjoyed hereditary dignities. In Poland alone there were, in 1837, 283,420 nobles. Many of the latter, however, are in a very destitute condition. Proud of their rank and their immunities, indolent and corrupt, they have always been a burden to the people, and have proved the greatest obstacles to Polish regeneration. Many of the Russian noblemen are highly accomplished, and some of them have, of late years, distinguished themselves by their attention to their estates, and the improvements they have introduced in agriculture and in the condition of their peasantry. Various circumstances have contributed to liberalize the feelings of the nobility in general. The lengthened stay of the Russian armies in the more civilized countries of Europe, after the defeat of Napoleon, made many of the nobles and officers familiar with a more advanced state of society and a better form of civil polity. This circumstance also gave an increased stimulus to the desire for traveling, already felt by the nobility, many of whom withdrew to England, France, and other countries. The influence of these circumstances has been shown on various occasions in Russia, and there is no doubt that a considerable number of the nobles, as well as the military officers, are quite willing to see some limits set to the power of the czar. To counter-

act this feeling, all kinds of obstacles have been latterly opposed to the emigration of the nobles and their residence abroad, and the most vigilant measures have been adopted to hinder the employment of foreign tutors and governesses, and to prevent the introduction of foreign works.

2. *Clergy.*—This body comprises in all about 274,000 individuals, of whom about 254,000 belong to the established church. They are exempted from all direct taxes, and from corporeal punishment, and may acquire all sorts of fixed property.

3. *Merchants, Burghers, &c.*—"This class," says the Empress Catharine, in her instructions for a new code of laws, "composed of freemen, belongs neither to the class of nobles nor to that of peasants. All those who, being neither gentlemen nor peasants, follow the arts and sciences, navigation or commerce, or exercise trades, are to be ranked in this class." The merchants and traders belonging to this class, are distributed into guilds, according to the amount of capital they respectively possess, and enjoy various privileges on their paying a certain per centage on their declared capital. The burghers, or second division of this class, possess many privileges superior to the peasants, but they are distinguished from the merchants by their being subject to the capitation tax, and enrolment in the army and navy. This class comprises about 3,000,000 individuals.

4. *Peasants.*—By far the largest portion of the people of Russia are peasants, belonging either to the crown or to individuals; above 21,000,000 being the property of the former, and 23,000,000 of the latter. One nobleman alone owns above 110,000 peasants, and the numbers of those belonging to some other great land-owners are little inferior. The nobles are obliged to pay a tax to government, (at the rate generally of about four rubles per male,) and to furnish recruits for the army according to the peasant population of their estates. The time and labor of the peasants are absolutely at the disposal of their owners, who may seize whatsoever property they may happen to acquire. The owner may also punish his peasant, but is forbidden by law, (which is, however, often evaded,) from beating him with any great cruelty. Many of the peasants are very enterprising, making arrangements with their owners for their time, embark in business on their own account, and accumulate large fortunes, frequently becoming more wealthy than their owners. A nobleman, owning a peasant of this description, was offered a very

large sum for him, but refused the offer, alecging that he was proud of owning the richest peasant in all Russia. The peasants may attend school, and sometimes receive a license to reside in a town, and learn a trade or profession. One is said to employ 4,000 laborers, and another planned and built the finest church in St. Petersburgh. The peasants are hardy, robust, and generally of middle stature. They live in log huts, warmed by stoves, wear sheep-skin coats in winter, and eat rye bread, cabbage soup, bacon, eggs, and salted cucumbers. The preparation of the latter is an important branch of domestic economy, and, with salted cabbage, they form an important article of national commerce. Brandy, made of corn, is drunk in immense quantifies by the peasants, over 80,000,000 gallons being consumed annually.

Army.—The grand army of Russia in 1853 was composed of 699,000 men, with 1,468 common, and 126,000 irregular troops, with 224 pieces of artillery. The soldiers are generally inferior in point of vigor, activity, intelligence, and enthusiasm, but they possess the most unflinching courage and the most implicit obedience. Subjected from birth to a master whose will is their law, the habit of prompt and absolute obedience becomes a part of their nature. Regardless of dangers or difficulties, they will attempt whatever they are ordered, and will endure, without a murmur, the greatest hardships and privations, supporting themselves in situations where others would starve. Were the officers as intelligent and skilful as the men are brave and docile, the Russian army would be much more formidable. But this has been far from being the case. Latterly, however, great efforts have been made to improve the condition of the officers. Military academies have been opened in several places, the pay of the officers has been increased, and the late Emperor Nicholas endeavored to excite the martial spirit of the people, and to make the service popular, by instituting grand military spectacles. The army is recruited from the classes of peasants and artisans, every individual belonging to them being liable to compulsory service, if he be of the proper age and stature. The period of service is 20 years in the imperial guard, and 22 in the other corps. Every individual, with his family, becomes free the moment he is enrolled in the ranks of the army. After two years's service, a soldier may become a sub-officer, and the sub-officer, after twelve years' service, obtains of right the rank of ensign or sub-lieutenant.

Navy.—The Russian fleet comprises about 60 ships of the line,

37 frigates, 40 steam-ships, and about 600 smaller vessels. The great naval stations are Cronstadt in the Gulf of Finland, and Sevastopal in the Black Sea.

Russia being engaged in war with Turkey and the western powers, every available resource is called into active service, both in the army and navy.

Education.—This is in a very low state. Schools have long existed in all the great towns, but the rural population is too much dispersed, even were it not enslaved, to reap much benefit from country schools. Education is, however, making progress, and has within the present century been much improved and extended. There are several ancient and distinguished universities, in which the higher classes are educated, such as those of Dorpot, Moscow, and St. Petersburgh, containing a considerable number of students, and supported by the government. There are also various schools, founded for particular objects, some endowed by individuals, and some under the control of the clergy. The theological schools are among the most ancient and important of all. Since the epoch of the Polish insurrection, the government of Russia has discovered great jealousy in respect to education. All Russian subjects have been forbidden to study at foreign universities; a strict surveillance is exercised over all kinds of schools; no private schools can be opened without permission from the proper authorities, and the masters or mistresses of such seminaries must be native Russians. Lectures on politics are forbidden. But the government has the sagacity to perceive that elementary instruction, including the principles of the useful arts, would not tend to shake the existing order of things, while it would do more than any thing else to elevate the peasantry from their state of ignorance and debasement, and to develop the resources of the country. Great numbers of elementary schools have been opened, and lectures on agriculture, and the application of science to art, have been established in the universities. A taste for instruction and reading is beginning to be widely diffused among the town population. Many new works annually appear, foreign works are translated, and numerous literary and scientific journals issue from the presses of St. Petersburgh, Riga, Odessa, &c. All works and journals from abroad must be submitted, under heavy penalties, to the inspection of the censors. This jealousy of whatever might tend to expand the minds of the people, and to make them acquainted with their rights and duties, is

the grand obstacle to the civilization of the higher classes and the burghers.

Races.—The Russian empire embraces a great variety of different races, but the Russians, properly so called, with the Poles, the Bulgarians, and Servians, belong to the great Slavonic family. In addition to these, who amount to three-fourths of the entire population, there are the Ouralians, or Finns, inhabiting Finland, Esthonia, Lapland, &c., numbering about 3,000,000. There are also Lithuanians, Tartars, Georgians, Armenians, Germans, Jews, Samoydes, Mongolians, Kamschatkadales, &c. All these various races speak about *forty* distinct languages, with an immense number of dialects.

Religion.—The religious tenets of the people are as various as their races. The court, however, and the great body of the nation, profess the Greek Christian faith. The points in which it differs principally from the Roman Catholic faith, are, its denying the spiritual supremacy of the pope, prohibiting the celibacy of the clergy, and authorizing all individuals to read and study the Scriptures in their vernacular tongue. No country in Europe possesses so many fine churches as Russia. The lower orders of the clergy are, however, ignorant, poor, and depraved, some of them being even unable to read the gospel in their own language. With the exception of certain restraints laid on the Jews, almost all religions may be freely professed any where in the empire. Catholics are very numerous in the Polish provinces, and there are also great numbers of Lutherans, Mohammedans, Jews, worshipers of the Grand Lama, &c.

TURKEY.

European Turkey, including the provinces of Wallachia, Servia, and Moldavia, extends from 30 to 48½ deg. N. lat., and from 15½ to 39½ deg. E. long. It is bounded N. by the Austrian empire, from which it is separated by the Save, the Danube, and the E. Carpathian mountains; N. E. by the Russian province of Bessarabia, separated from it by the river Pruth; E. by the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora, and the Hellespont; S. by Greece, and W. by the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, and the Austrian province of Dalmatia. Neither the area nor the population of this extensive country has been ascertained with any thing like precision. The

most probable estimate seems to be—area, 626,920 square miles; population, 35,350,000.

Face of the Country, &c.—There are several mountain chains, which extend over considerable portions of the country, rendering communication between the contiguous provinces rare and difficult. The loftiest peak is Mount Scardus, nearly 10,000 feet high; but with this exception, and one or two others, the Turkish mountains rarely reach an elevation of 8,000 feet. There are many narrow valleys, and some very extensive plains, particularly that which comprises Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bulgaria, traversed by the Danube. Almost every part of the country is well watered. Among the large rivers are the Danube, the Save, and the Pruth, each of which has many considerable branches. There are no lakes of large size, but small ones are numerous in the southern provinces. The coasts are generally bold and rocky.

Climate, &c.—In so extensive a region, the climate must of necessity be subject to the greatest variation. In general, it is much colder in European Turkey than in the same latitudes in Italy and Spain, and the temperature is very changeable. In the provinces of the Danube, snow falls to a great depth, and the thermometer sometimes descends to 15° below zero. Here also the summer heats are oppressive. On the other hand, in Albania, the vegetable products are the same as those on the opposite shore of Italy; and in Thessaly, oil, wine, cotton, tobacco, figs, citron, oranges, lemons, &c., are produced in perfection.

The *population* of Turkey consists of many separate nations, differing in origin, manners, religion, and mode of life. The provinces of Wallachia, Moldavia, and Servia, though nominally connected with the Porte, and paying tribute to it, are in reality nearly independent, having for some years been under the protection of Russia. According to the estimate which is considered most probable, the inhabitants of Wallachia amount to about 2,500,000, those of Moldavia to 1,500,000, those of Servia to 900,000, the Bulgarians to 2,000,000, the Albanians to 1,600,000, the Greeks to 900,000; and these, together with the Bosniacs, Herzegovinians, Croats, Montenegrins, Armenians, Jews, Gipsies, and Franks, make up a total population of 14,000,000. The number of the true Turks, or Osmanlies, who have for about four centuries been the dominant race, is only about 1,000,000. The Turks are proud, indolent, and sensual; they possess little talent for governing, and have never

coalesced or associated with the original inhabitants of the countries under their sway.

Agriculture.—In most parts of Turkey, agriculture is in a very backward condition. In Bulgaria, cultivation is better understood than any where else, and in Thessaly the fertility of the soil is so great, that in spite of the wretched and primitive mode of culture, large crops are produced. Maize, wheat, rye, barley, oats, and buckwheat, are pretty generally cultivated. Wine is produced in most of the provinces. Sheep and goats are pastured in great numbers, and their flesh constitutes the chief animal food of the people.

Manufactures and Trade.—In some branches of manufactures, the Turks are unsurpassed. Their satins and silks, velvets, serges, crapes, gauzes, and carpets, are among the best in the world. They also excel in the manufacture of arms, especially sword blades. A considerable quantity of cotton goods is manufactured, and the annual value of this article has been estimated as high as £5,000,000. The articles exported from Turkey are numerous, and comprise the products, both raw and manufactured, of nearly all parts of the east. Among these are sheep's wool, goat's hair, cattle, horses, hides, wheat, raw cotton and silk, raisins, figs, almonds, tobacco, gums and drugs of various kinds, opium, carpets, leather, &c., together with all sorts of Arabian, Persian, Indian, and Chinese goods. The imports consist of linen, woolen, cotton, and silk goods, hardware, earthenware, paper, furs, &c.

Government.—The power of the grand seignior is founded on the Koran; he is considered the vicegerent of the prophet, and so far as he acts in conformity with the laws of Mahomet, his power is nearly unlimited. He is assisted in the government of the empire by a cabinet council, or *divan*, composed of several ministers of public affairs, and the *mufti*, or head of the law. The provinces are governed by pachas, whose power is, in many respects, unlimited. They are appointed by the sultan, and are deposed or put to death at his pleasure. The whole system of internal administration is little else than a tissue of mismanagement and abuses, and to it is owing the weak and degraded state of the empire.

Army.—The Turkish army, in 1853, in active service, amounted to 376,101 men; army of reserve, 126,889 men. Total 502,992 men. They are raised by conscription. The navy consisted of 74 vessels, about 4,000 cannon, and 25,000 men.

The Turks have through the past year checked the progress and power of Russia in Moldavia, Wallachia, and Servia, and are now warmly engaged in war, having formed an alliance with England and France against Russia. Omer Pacha has command of the forces, and contending in the Crimea.

Religion.—The Turks are bigoted Mussulmen; the Moldavians and Wallachians, who are descendants of the ancient Dacians, and the Servians and Bulgarians, who belong to the Slavonic race, profess the religion of the Greek church; the Bosniacs are mostly Mussulmen, though of Slavonic origin; the Jews number about 250,000.

GREECE.

The modern kingdom of Greece includes that portion of the great eastern peninsula of Europe which lies north of latitude 39° 16′ N., together with the islands of Eubœa, the Cyclades and the Sporades. The continental part has on the N. the Turkish pachalics of Albania and Thessaly, and is every where else surrounded by the Mediterranean. The area of the whole is about 18,244 square miles, and the population about 1,002,102.

The *climate* is generally temperate and healthy, though in the southern parts, the heat is often excessive. The vegetable products are similar to those of S. Italy. The scenery is celebrated and interesting, not less for its natural beauties than from its classical associations, and the remains of ancient splendor scattered over it.

Agriculture is in a backward state, though since Greece became independent, improvements have taken place in this as well as in other branches of industry. Wheat, maize, rice, olives, currants, the vine, figs, oranges, &c., are cultivated, and honey is an important product. The greater part of the surface, however, being rugged and uneven, pasturage is more attended to than agriculture. Great numbers of sheep and goats are raised.

Manufactures are almost entirely domestic, each family making nearly every article required for its consumption. Commerce has considerably advanced within a few years. The principal articles of export are raw silk, currants, wool, olive oil, wines, honey, and wax. The imports are corn, cotton goods, silk and woolen fabrics, sugar, and coffee. The mercantile vessels are generally small in

size; in 1838 they numbered over 4,500, manned by about 16,000 sailors.

Government.—The independence of Greece, which for many years had been in possession of the Turks, was acknowledged by the Porte in 1829, and the crown was conferred by the allied powers of Europe upon Prince Otho, a younger son of the King of Bavaria. His government consists of seven ministers, a council of state, and a synod of the clergy. The government was at first nearly an absolute monarchy; the revolution of 1843 introduced a constitution; in March, 1844, a government of limitation was proclaimed. The king exercises the power of the executive, and commands the army and navy. In 1853 the army consisted of 9,848 men, of whom 325 were cavalry. The navy consisted of one 26-gun corvette, 1 steamer 4 guns (120 horse power), and 16 small vessels, with an aggregate of 56 guns, total 86 guns.

ARABIA.

Arabia, an extensive peninsula, comprising the S. W. portion of the Asiatic continent, situated between the rest of Asia and Africa, and between 12° 22′ and 33° 45′ N. lat., and 32° 50′ and 58° 42′ E. long. It is bounded on the S. and on the N. E. by the gulfs of Oman and Persia; and on the W. the Arabic gulf, or Red Sea, forms its boundary from the straits of Bab-el-Mandeb to the isthmus of Suez. The N. limit is less clearly defined; the desert in which Arabia terminates in this direction being conterminous with that of Syria, and no well-defined line of demarcation existing between them. The most natural boundary on this side appears to be a line drawn from the head of the Persian gulf to the most westerly point of that of Suez, coinciding very nearly with the 30th parallel of N. lat.; a considerable portion of Irak Arabi, the desert plains S. and E. of Syria and Palestine, is generally included in this country, and the N. boundary follows very nearly the course of the Euphrates. The countries contiguous to Arabia are, on the N. the Asiatic provinces of the Turkish empire; W., Egypt and Abyssinia; S., Adel, the most easterly portion of Africa; N. E., Persia. On the East, except along the Persian gulf, the nearest land is Hindostan. Its greatest length, from Suez to Cape Ras-al-Hhad, is 1,690 miles, and its greatest width from the straits of Bab-el-Mandeb to the town of Kehan,

on the Euphrates 1,400 miles. Its area is about 1,000,000 sq. miles. The population of Arabia is supposed to be from 12 to 14,000,000, but owing to the nomadic habits of the greater part of the inhabitants, and so little being known with respect to the settled population in the numerous petty states, it is almost impossible to assign their limits or population.

Divisions, &c.—Arabia, the ancient mart of gold and silver, gems, pearls, spices, and perfumes whence the Phœnicians of old furnished the countries of Europe, was termed first by the western nations *Felix*, or Happy; next the Greeks and Romans visited this fancied paradise, but finding the soil, wherever they essayed to enter the country, a burning sand or an unfruitful rock; supposing it to be separated from the less favored portions of the earth by an absolutely sterile zone or belt; the inhospitable tracts upon the N. and W. received the appellation of *Deserta*, or Desert. Ptolemy added a third division, including the country between the Red and Dead Seas, and between Palestine and the Euphrates, which he termed *Arabia Petræa.* Yemen, the southern part of the peninsula, and Hadramaut, the S. E. division of Arabia, point out the situation, if not the extent, of the *Arabia Felix* of Strabo and Ptolemy; the inhabitants regarding themselves as the chief of all the Arabian people, calling their country *Bellad-el-Ulm u Bellad-ed-Din,* "The birth-place of the sciences and of religion." The *Arabia Felix* of Greek geography seems to have extended much farther north, comprising the whole of Hedjaz and Oman, together with the greater part of Lachsa, and a considerable portion of Nedsjed. *Arabia Deserta* included the N. parts of Nedsjed, (the central part of the peninsula) and Lachsa, which lies upon the Persian gulf. In Ptolemy's map, this district is separated from the former by an imaginary line of mountains running from the Persian gulf to another range, equally imaginary, supposed to form the boundary between *Arabia Felix* and *Arabia Petræa.*

Climate.—The tropic of Cancer divides Arabia into two not very unequal parts, lying partly in the torrid and partly in the S. part of the N. temperate zone; consequently having its succession of dry and rainy seasons. On the mountains of Yemen the showers fall regularly from the middle of June till the end of September. In Oman the rainy season begins in November, and continues till the middle of February. In the plain country on the coast, a whole year frequently passes without one drop of rain; thus is found the striking resemblance between Africa and Arabia. In the latter, as in the

former, the parched plains are denied the refreshment of falling showers, and owe what share of fertility they possess to the inundations consequent upon the saturation of the mountains. During the rainy season, the sky is sometimes covered by clouds for 24 hours together. During the dry season, a cloud is rarely seen. The temperature of Arabia, like that of other countries, differs widely, according to the elevation of the surface, the nature of the soil, and the neighborhood of the ocean. The mountains of the S. Yemen and Hadramaut are the most habitable, and the coolest parts of the peninsula. The heat of the Tehama is excessive, and great extremes of temperature are experienced within very short distances. At Mocha, on the Red Sea, the thermometer rises in summer to 98° Fahr., while at Saana, in the mountains, it never exceeds 85°, and in this district *freezing* winter nights are not unfrequent. The noxious blast of the Simoom particularly visits the vast plains called the *Desert of Aklaf*, owing to the generation of heat from the vast quantity of sand in their neighborhood. The wind blowing over them about the summer solstice becomes so dry that paper and parchment exposed to its influence will scorch and crack as though in the mouth of an oven, and life, both animal and vegetable, perishes.

Natural Productions, &c.—The differences of soil and climate occasion much variety in the species and amounts of the natural products of Arabia. Among the natural productions is *Manna*, (mentioned in Exodus,) produced from a little thorny bush, the mesanbryanthemum, aloe, euphorbium, stapela, and salsola, plants so acceptable to the thirsty camel during the painful journey of the caravan. The tamarind, cotton tree, sugar cane, banana, nutmeg, betel, and every variety of melons and pumpkins are *indigenous*. Arabia is regarded as the native home of the date tree, the cocoa, the fan-leaved palm, fig, orange, plantain, almond, apricot, acacia vera, the sensitive plant, the castor-oil plant, and senna, &c. Wherever water is found, or can be procured, the labor of the Arabian agriculturist is well repaid. Maize, wheat, dhourrah, barley, and millet cover the mountain sides of Yemen, and other fertile parts. Indigo, tobacco, *Uars*, a plant yielding a yellow dye, *Faur*, an herb which produces a red color, &c. Arabia possesses no forests, but on the mountain sides are groves and thickets. As the land of frankincense and myrrh, Arabia is famed of old, but it is supposed these products were supplied from Africa and other eastern countries. The camel, or as it has been termed, "the Ship of the Desert," without which

the Arabian could not cross the seas of sand, is of the greatest consequence for speed and carrying burdens, &c. The horse, or Arab steed, is said to be descended from the famous breed of Solomon, and is termed *Kochlani*, or horses of ascertained race. These horses seldom stand over 14 hands high, of a delicate but extremely elegant form. The Bedouin will rarely part with a Kochlani mare, except under such reservation of right in her future offspring. The other kind termed *Kadeschi* is of an unknown race, and used for purposes of labor, &c., the *Kochlani* being the Arab's pride. The other domestic animals are oxen, generally of a humped kind, sheep, (one variety with extremely thick and broad tails,) goats and asses (from some of these asses a breed of very valuable mules is procured.) Among the wild animals, are the jackal, hyena, asses, the jerboa, wolf, fox, boar, panther, and antelope. The plains are filled with partridges, the woods with Guinea fowl, and the mountain side with pheasants. The adored Samamog, which flocks from Persia every year, commits great devastation among the flights of locusts. The ostrich, or camel bird, wanders in the sandy deserts. Of reptiles the land and sea turtles are numerous, serpents, quarrel, lizards, &c. All the coasts abound in fish. Minerals are scarce. The onyx is found in Yemen, and an inferior emerald. The other minerals are basalt, blue alabaster, several kinds of spars and selenite.

Laws, &c.—The laws of Arabia are those of a primitive people under a patriarchal government. The civil laws, founded on the Koran, are administered by cadis, distinguished by their experience in the customs of the nation, but to whom a knowledge of the arts of *reading* and *writing* is not always indispensable. The Arab judges are of two kinds; the *Cadi-el-feriaa* (judge of customary laws) and the *Cadi-el-sheryaa*, (judge of written law,) the latter being in the Turkish towns, or towns governed by Turkish law. The sovereign, whether he be monarch or sheik of a Bedouin tribe, is only president of the tribunal of justice—he cannot decide a case—every one must be submitted to the proper tribunal; and the sovereign possesses no power of reversing its decision. But this protection in the towns is only apparent, for the monarch having power to name or dismiss a cadi at pleasure, they regard themselves simply as his officers, and never dream of pronouncing a decision which he disapproves. Among the Bedouins, the office is elective, and the sheik has no influence in the appointment. Capital punishments are rare, being inflicted only for blasphemy and conjugal infidelity in woman.

The decisions of the cadis are generally founded upon the amount of testimony they have before them; but if there be no witnesses, the defendant is called upon to expurgate himself by oath. The judicial oaths vary in sanctity and solemnity; and if the accused swear, by the one proposed, to his innocence, he is considered as acquitted. An ordeal, not very dissimilar to that formerly prevailing in Europe, exists in Arabia. It consists of heating an iron spoon red hot, and calling the accused to lick it; if he escape without injury, he is accounted innocent; if otherwise, guilty. Though polygamy is allowed by the Mohammedan law, in practice it is by no means general, few Arabs having more than one wife. If a sheik or sovereign die, his successor is usually taken from *among* his sons. The law of inheritance is very simple as regards property. The effects of a deceased father are shared among his children, the portion of a male being double that of a female.

Education, Religion, &c.—Public provision is made for the education of youth; and a teacher for the children and young slaves is no uncommon part of the domestic establishment of distinguished families, so that in the cities the greater portion of the population can read and write. To almost every mosque there is (or was) attached a school where the poorer children may be taught gratuitously; besides, there are in every great town private schools, where the children of the middle classes are received. The education is very limited, comprising reading, writing, the simple rules of arithmetic, and the doctrines of the Mohammedan religion. School houses, like the shops, are open to the street, so that the whole process of education is conducted in public, and, in order to attract attention, the readers and repeaters speak in the highest possible key, and accompany their delivery with violent gesticulations. Besides these, there are in the greater towns schools of a higher character, for the study of mathematics, astronomy, astrology, and medicine. In the Inmanet of Yemen there are two of these colleges; among the studies in them is the ancient Arabic, now a dead language. In many of the towns the public schools are falling to decay, and those qualified to conduct them prefer wandering over the country like the bards and troubadours of the middle ages, as poets and orators. There is no public provision for female education. A great obstacle to the advancement of education in Arabia is the prejudice of the natives against printing. There was not (a few years ago) a single printing press in the country.

PERSIA.

PERSIA, a celebrated and very extensive country of central Asia, between the 39th and 26th degrees N. lat., and the 44th and 62d degrees E. long. Its ancient name was *Elam*. The Turkish territories embrace a large portion of country to the E. of the Tigris, and the country of Talash, to the S. of the Aras, belongs to the Persians—with these deductions, its area probably exceeds 450,000 square miles; though from the vast extent of its deserts, the badness of its government, and the want of industry, the population does not exceed 8 or 10,000,000.

Soil, Climate, &c.—Lime abounds everywhere, and being mingled in the glens and valleys with the remains of decayed vegetables, &c., forms a loamy soil of inexhaustible fertility. Indurated clay is often found to mingle with the calcareous matter. Artificial irrigation is essential to the raising of crops; and is the great business of the Persian agriculturist; and is well understood, being practiced from the remotest antiquity. The summer heats in the S. provinces are almost insupportable, while the cold of winter in those of the N. rivals that of Canada or Russia. In the low provinces on the Caspian, the heat, though great in summer, is not so excessive as in the S., partly from the evaporation that takes place, as well as from the breezes from the sea; but the climate here is extremely unhealthy, and in the end of autumn putrid and intermittent fevers are prevalent.

Commerce, &c.—The principal trade of Persia is with India, Turkey, Russia, Bokhara, Affghanistan, and lately with England. In 1820 the export trade was estimated at £1,225,000 a-year. Since then the imports have undoubtedly increased, the imports of 1835 to Trebizond of European produce, the greater part of which finds its way to Persia, exceeded a million sterling. Scarcely any vessels belong to Persian owners.

Military force.—In 1637, when the shah made every possible effort to bring a large force against Herât, the besieging army did not certainly exceed 35,000 men of every description. What may be called the household troops consist of a kind of militia of about 10,000, quartered in the capital and its vicinity, and liable to be called out at a moment's warning.

Government.—The government of Persia is in principle an absolute

despotism. The shah, being regarded as the vicegerent of the prophet, is absolute master of the lives and properties of his subjects, and the first man in the empire may, at his command, be instantly stripped of all his dignities, bastinadoed, or strangled; the only control on his actions being the risk of provoking rebellion or assassination. The two principal ministers are the grand vizier, or *Vizier Azem*, and the lord high treasurer, or *Ameen a Doulah*. The former superintends every thing connected with foreign relations, and in the absence of the sovereign commands the armies; while the latter, who is subordinate to the other, superintends the internal arrangements, the collection of the revenue, &c. The whole executive government is in the hands of these two functionaries, whose authority, so long as they continue in power, is as absolute as that of their master; but their greatness being built on the favor of a tyrant, is of the most unstable kind, and they are very often precipitated from their slippery elevation. The system of civil government is simple. Each province or important district of a province, including some large city, has a *Beglerberg*, or governor, usually a prince of the blood or nobleman of rank, who appoints his lieutenants, or *Hakims*, over the divisions and subdivisions, and each village has its *Ketkhoda*, or magistrate, generally one of the more respectable inhabitants, who is the organ of communication with the government. There are also governors of cities and towns, lieutenants of police, chief magistrates of cities, &c., who are in general practically chosen by the people, and who look to the Kelounlee as their head. The revenue of the shah has been variously estimated, but does not probably amount to more than £1,500,000 or £2,000,000, which is principally derived from taxes on lands and farms, capitation taxes, duties on imports and exports, tributes paid by the nomadic tribes, &c.

National Character, &c.—In general it may be said of the Persians, that they are handsome, active, robust; of lively imagination, quick apprehension, agreeable and prepossessing manners. As a nation they may be termed brave. Unhappily their vices are far more prominent than their virtues. Though the despotism to which they are subject is similar to that which weighs down all the eastern nations, they have a peculiar and distinctive character. They are skillful in flattery and profuse with compliments; their language is extravagantly hyperbolical; in fact a stranger, ignorant of their character, would suppose they were ready to devote their life and fortune to his service. Their conduct is a tissue of falsehood and fraud, and

seldom think of fair dealing till they find they have to do with one who sees through their impositions. They are said to be incorrigible spendthrifts; their dress, horses, harness, &c., are generally arranged on a scale exceeding their means, and are intended for ostentation; and the difficulties in which they are thus involved make them resort to any expedient, however mean and discreditable, for raising money. The Persian females, at least of the sedentary class, are for the most part concealed. The wives of the great pass their time visiting their friends, and amusing themselves with diversions of one kind and another, and with intrigues. The bath is, however, the principal scene of their enjoyment and relaxation, where, secure from interruption, they give full scope to merriment and scandal. When they leave the house, they put on a cloak, which descends from their head to their feet, their faces carefully veiled, holes only being left for their eyes. It is curious to see a number of tall and elegantly-formed figures walking in the streets, and presenting nothing but a pair of sparkling black eyes to your view, and enjoying the curiosity they excite. The Persians are restricted to four legitimate wives, but they may have as many concubines as they please, the latter being acquired by purchase or hire. Few, however, unless they belong to the richer classes, indulge in the luxury of a plurality of wives, or keep concubines. Marriages are usually celebrated with great splendor, and often entail a ruinous expense on the parties.

HINDOSTAN.

Hindostan, or India on this side the Ganges or Brahmaputra. In the European sense, Hindostan comprises the whole of that vast triangular country extending from the borders of Little Thibet, in about the 35th deg. of N. lat. to Cape Comorin, in about the 8th deg. It is bounded on the N. by the highest range of mountains in the world—the Himalaya—and by the two great rivers, the Brahmaputra and Indus, on the N. E. and N. W., and in every other direction by the ocean. It comprises in all an area of between 1,200,000 and 1,300,000 sq. miles, about a third part of the estimated area of Europe; but from the absence of gulfs, inland seas, and lakes, the proportion of solid land is greater. Population, 131,751,509. Revenue, in round numbers, gives a total of £20,350,000. The surface of Hindostan is of a very marked character. On the N., con-

stituting the base of the triangle, we have three great ranges of mountains, with elevated valleys between. These chains rise, the one higher than the other as they proceed northward, the last constituting the highest mountains hitherto discovered. For 1,000 miles, from China to Cashmere, a plane might be extended, resting on peaks 21,000 feet high, while some are even 6,000 feet above this elevation. The valleys themselves are from 2,000 to 4,000 ft. above the level of the sea. Primitive rocks alone compose the higher ranges. The rivers of India have their sources either in the Himalaya mountains, or within the great central table land. The Ganges being the principal river, its whole course is about 1,350 miles. There are no fewer than twenty-five native languages spoken in Hindostan, independent of the dialects of tribes in a very rude state of society. 88 parts out of 100 of the whole of India belong to England.

The government of India is kept up at an enormous expense, and to maintain the dominion, not through the affections and good will of the people, but partly through their docility, and partly by the sword, a vast army of 200,000 men becomes necessary; the officers amounting to about 5,000. Among the foreign settlers are found the Jews, Syrian Christians, Arabs, Armenians, Persees, Persians, Afghans, Tartars, Turks, Abyssinians, Portuguese, English, Dutch, French, Danes, and Chinese. The forms of religion which prevail are the Brahminical, Buddhist, Jain, Seik, Mohammedan, Jewish, and Christian. The great body of the people of Hindostan have neither the courage nor spirit to defend themselves or their property, or to resist oppression in a straightforward manner, and consequently they become easy victims to every possessor of power, by whatever means obtained. The Arab, the Persian, the Chinese, and the Malay knows how to defend himself from insult and robbery by some means or other, however rude; but the Hindoo puts up with oppression, without directly resenting it, and, like the weaker animals, that are the natural prey of the stronger and more ferocious, trusts to artifice and cunning for his defense.

CHINA.

China, (Empire of) a vast country of S. E. Asia, between lat. 20° and 50° N., and long. 70° and 144° E., in form nearly square, being bounded on the E. and S. E. by those arms of the Pacific ocean known as the Gulf of Tartary, the sea of Japan, the Yellow

sea, the strait of Formosa, the Chinese sea, and the Gulf of Tonquin; on the land sides, by Tonquin, Laos, and Burmah; S. W. and W. by Independent Tartary, and N., for the immense extent of 3,300 miles, by Asiatic Russia. The Chinese empire includes all the table-land of Eastern Asia—about a third part of the whole continent—or a little less than a tenth part of the habitable globe, and contains within its enormous area the largest amount of population and wealth united under one government in the world. The east line has an extent of above 3,350 miles, and the total circumference of the empire is about 12,550 miles; the population is supposed to be 362,447,183, giving 1,413,982 mouths for the population of Shing-king, Keih-lin, Turpan, Lobnor, and Formosa; and 188,326 families for those engaged in the service of the emperor, &c.

General Aspect, &c.—The great plain, which occupies the N. E. part of the country, is above 700 miles in length, varying from 150 to near 500 in width, with an immense population. The most stupendous wall, built several hundred years before the Christian era, to protect China from Tartar invasions, extends along the whole N. portion from the Gulf of Leotong, in 120°, to the N. W. extremity of the empire, in about 99° E. long. and 40° N. lat., being, including its windings, 1,250 miles in length. It is from 15 to 30 feet in hight, 15 across at the top, and at intervals there are square towers, some of them 37 feet high. It is composed of earth faced with masonry, the platform paved with square tiles. It is now fast decaying, owing to the union of the Tartar with the Chinese territory. The mountains and hills comprise almost half the area of China, covered with noble forests and crowned with pagodas, with cities along their sides, give a magnificent aspect, without interrupting its culture. To her mighty rivers China is indebted for the source of her riches, vast population, and fertility, the two principal being the *Hoang-ho*, or Yellow river, and the "*Yang-tse-Kiang*," a "Son of the ocean." The latter is the pride of China. The next rivers of importance are the Euho, or Yun-liang, Ta-si-Kiang, Choo-Kiang, or Canton river, with a vast number of other rivers, some of which fall into the sea, and others into the great lakes. The principal lake is called the Tunting-hos, 220 miles in circumference. This lake is surrounded by picturesque and finely-wooded hills. The Chinese poets muse and write upon the scenery of its admired shores. The Great Canal, giving the direct distance between the extreme limits, is about 512 miles, but including its bends it is above 650 miles in length.

Climate.—The temperature of China, being situated between the 20th and 42d degrees of N. lat., and the most E. long. of any part of the Old World, is very low for its geographical position. Its climate is one of extremes. At Pekin, 1° farther S. than Naples, the mean temperature is that of Brittany. The scorching heats of summer are greater than at Cairo, and the winters as rigorous as at Upsal. In so vast a territory, there must, necessarily, be many variations. The W. districts are much influenced by the colds diffused by the mountains, while the climate of the maritime provinces is modified by the sea. At Canton, which is under the tropic, the heat in July, August, and September, is excessive. Then occur those frightful tornadoes, called typhoons, spreading destruction in their course. Those do not often extend farther than Canton. The transitions from heat to cold and foggy nights are more violent than in any part of the world, after the breaking up of these hurricanes. The N. winds set in about November, and bring with them cold as intense as the preceding heats. The mean temperature of Canton is 76°. The W. frontier districts of Yun-nan and Lyc-chuen are said to be unhealthy, and are selected as places of banishment for Chinese convicts. The fall of rain varies in China considerably in different years. Many violent earthquakes have been felt in China.

Natural Productions, &c.—The universal cultivation, and the thickness of population, have long expelled most of the wild animals which abound in the surrounding regions. Beasts of burden are in a great measure superseded by the means of transit so copiously afforded by canals and water-courses, and by that fine race of men, the Coolies or porters. Animal food is considerably less in use among the Chinese than vegetable diet. There are no meadows for feeding cattle, and even if there were, the natives have a singular aversion to butter and milk. Wild cats are caught, confined, and fed in cages, and considered a dainty for the table. Monkeys are found in the S. districts. The Chinese horse and ass is small and spiritless, and so is the buffalo, which is sometimes used in plowing. Dromedaries are much used between Pekin and Tartary. Pigs, small sheep, and goats with straight horns, are reared. Large troops of rats emigrate from one place to another, and devour the crops and harvest. They are very large, and, among the common people, are used as an article of food.

The *ornithology* presents the eagle, the *haetsin*, magpie, crow, sparrow, fishing cormorant, curlew, quail, lark, pigeon, and the gold

and silver pheasant, so acceptable to the table of the poor, with beautiful aquatic birds so naturally invited to a country abounding with lakes and rivers. The fish while fresh is insipid, but kept for a while in ice is delicious. The *shang-tung*, sea-eel, and a sort of rock cod called *tsang-yu*, sturgeon, mullet, carp, perch, and sea-beam are much admired. Crab-fish are plentiful, as likewise oysters. The insect tribe furnish its plague and blessing to China. The plague of locust-swarms is terribly inflicted upon the N. and W. provinces; it is not uncommon for them to occasion so much destruction as to reduce thousands to starvation; while another insect, the silk-worm, furnishes employment and riches to an immense part of the population. Scorpions and centipedes are plentiful—spiders, devouring small birds, after entangling them in their webs; butterflies of gigantic size, and white ants, mosquitos, and the bee called the white-wax insect. In the vegetable kingdom are the palm, laurel, cassia, and caper trees, the banana, guava, orange, papaw, cocoa, litchi, peach, apricot, vine, pomegranate, chestnut, and the tallow tree, &c. The tea plant rises from about four to five feet in hight, and bears a strong resemblance to the myrtle, but the flower is not unlike small white hedge roses. There are three ingatherings of the leaves, the first in early spring, the second at the commencement, and the third at the end of summer. That giant of the grass tribe, the bamboo, an important instrument for enforcing the laws, building houses, and fashioning all sorts of furniture, whose tender shoot makes an excellent food, and supplies the material for a coarse sort of paper. Tobacco, cotton, and sugar-canes are cultivated, turnips, carrots, sweet potatoes, white cabbage, &c.; rice is plentifully cultivated. *Gen-seng* root, the *ti-wang* restorative plant, galangal, rhubarb, ginger, poppy, &c. The mineral kingdom, so far as explored, is found to possess great mineral riches. Gold dust, iron, mercury, arsenic, cobalt, and orpiment. There are coal mines in China. The beautiful *lapis lazuli* is met with in the W. provinces, with salt, &c. China furnishes the crystal, ruby, amethyst, sapphire, topaz; but diamonds are little valued. Stones resembling basalt, which when struck give out a sound. Marble, porphyry, and jasper, besides excellent granite and quartz.

Manufactures, Commerce, &c.—As an inventive, imitative, manufacturing people, the Chinese have long been celebrated. The foreign trade of China is varied or under troublesome restrictions, and is chiefly in the hands of the British and Americans. The great

articles of export are tea and silk, with the former of which China supplies the whole world. The average annual quantities of tea exported to various parts may be estimated as follows: Great Britain, 36,000,000 lbs.; America, 10,000,000 lbs.; France, 350,000 lbs.; Holland, 2,800,000 lbs.; Russia, by way of Kiachta, 6,500,000 lbs.; Cape of Good Hope, 200,000 lbs.; British colonies in N. America, 1,200,000 lbs.; New South Wales, 500,000 lbs.; Indian provinces, 2,000,000 lbs. Among the other articles are sugar, stuffs, nankeen, lacquered ware, articles of ivory, mother-of-pearl, and tortoise shell, the precious metals, &c. The gross amount of trade between England alone and China, from the 1st of July, 1837, to the 30th of June, 1838, is stated by the Canton Chamber of Commerce to have employed £11,700,000 sterling of British capital. Imports, betel nuts, edible birds' nests, lignum vitæ, ivory, pepper, steel, tin, and wax, manufactured cloths, calicoes, and chintzes. Opium has become by far the most important and valuable of all the foreign articles imported into China. Its importation is contraband.

Military, &c.—The military service of China is nominally composed of 1,000,000 soldiers, besides the militia, and numerous standards of Mongul cavalry, but from this vast number many names may be deducted, which are merely entered in the books, and perhaps the whole force does not exceed 700,000. The whole army is divided into standards, distinguished by borders and colors. The officers are raised from the ranks. Their grades are the Le-tuh, or commander-in-chief, down to the Wae-wei, or sergeant. The principal weapons are bows and arrows, with clumsy metal locks, and iron guns without carriages. The navy is extensive but inefficient; it includes 1,000 sail; but the men-of-war are mere junks, mounting a few guns, commanded by three high admirals and their inferior officers. Few sailors are regularly bred to the service, but are chiefly wretches who have been obliged to flee from their homes. The Chinese use a compass invented by themselves, divided into twenty-four parts, beginning at the S., the needle moving freely in a box placed upon a bed of sand.

Religion, Education, &c.—There is no religion in China actually supported by the state, and *Yu*, the doctrine of Confucius, is the only one countenanced by it. But there are two other sects, *Fo*, or Buddhism, and *Taou*, or that of the "Rationalists." The first acknowledges a Supreme Being, and believes the emperor his sole vicegerent on earth. Heaven. earth, the elements, Confucius, gods

of various attributes, saints, the emperor, &c., are objects of worship. The religious edifices of the *Yu* sect are said to be very splendid. They chiefly consist of one large hall, approached by steps, with the idol placed upon an altar, the walls are decorated with pictures, the ceiling gilded with griffins and dragons. The professors of *Taouism* pretend to magic, alchemy, and to be possessed of the elixir of long life; practice glaring impositions, and inculcate the most puerile superstitions. They encourage a belief in ghosts and evil spirits, make use of spells and talismans, lucky and unlucky birds, and a system of tricks called *fung-shuey*, by which they pretend to choose lucky situations for building houses and tombs, and a hundred other fallacies, by which these impostors contrive to fill their purses. Religion, of whatever kind, has been reckoned a matter of secondary importance in China. Many endeavors have been made to introduce Christianity into China. It was first introduced by the Nestorians in the 17th century, followed by the Jesuits who were more successful than any other sect. The late Dr. Morrison was the first Protestant missionary who landed in China. The Mohammedan, Jewish, and many other religions are now to be found in China. At the present time China is convulsed and a great revolution going on toward the foundation of Christianity, and overturning the present heathenish idolatry and government.

Education is more encouraged and favored even than in Prussia; and such is the estimation in which it is held, that all state employments are given by competition, as school and college prizes to the best scholars. Schools for youth are abundant in every part of the empire; and education is so general and its cost so reasonable that reading and writing may be almost said to be universal. To procure the highest state offices, an examination before the national college, or *Han-lin*, is necessary; but the very pinnacle of fame is only arrived at by being examined by the emperor himself. Every literary honor confers the title of mandarin, and each degree is distinguished by a difference of the dress, which is, in some instances, very splendid. Memory is the chief object of admiration—memory to repeat the greatest number of the wise sayings of the ancient sages. In China there are more books and more people to read them than in any other country in the world. Among the 360 millions of Chinamen, at least two millions are literati. There are no original writers. It being generally believed that whatever is to be known has already been discovered; and if any author is bold enough to start any thing

new, if that should happen to vary in the smallest particular from the orthodox writers, he will be severely punished. Thus is knowledge and civilization in China at a stand still.

Government.—According to the theory of the constitution, if we may so speak, the emperor is absolute; his will is law, and he is not responsible to any earthly tribunal for any of his actions. In China as in ancient Rome, fathers have full power over their families, and on the same principle, the emperor is held to have entire control over the Chinese people. The Chinese is emphatically a government of precedent, and his celestial majesty, is, in reality, the creature of custom and etiquette. The penal laws of the empire are printed in a cheap form, and widely diffused. The emperor is called "the son of heaven," (Teën-tsye) and the mandarins and other natives not only prostrate themselves when in his presence, but also before a tablet with the inscription "the lord of a myriad years" (Wan-suy-yay). Every device is employed to create the impression of awe. Dressed in a yellow robe, the color worn, say the Chinese, by the sun, the emperor is surrounded by the pageantry of the highest dignity in the world. All must bow the head to a yellow screen of silk. In the great man's presence, no one dares speak but in a whisper, though his person is too sacred to be often exhibited in public, and an imperial dispatch is received by the burning of incense and prostration. But with all this he is not allowed to lean back in public, to smoke, to change his dress, or in fact to indulge in the least relaxation from the fatiguing support of his dignity. Next to the emperor, the court is composed of four principal ministers, two Tartars, and two Chinese, who form the great council of state, asisted by certain assessors from the Han-lin, or Great College, who have studied the sacred books of Confucius, which form the basis of Chinese law. These may be considered as the cabinet. The police is said to be vigilant and efficient. Corporal punishment is very frequent—the bamboo is in universal requisition from the emperor down to the meanest of his subjects. Sedition is punishable with a lingering death; and there is in use a sort of pillory called the *cangue*, and torture is employed to extort confession. It is believed that the entire revenue is £12,000,000 sterling, £10,000,000 in money, 2,000,000 in produce, which is raised not as taxation but as rent, the emperor uniting the character of landlord with that of king and father.

JAPAN.

JAPAN (Empire of,) called *Niphon* by the Japanese, and *Yang-hou* by the Chinese; an insular empire off the E. coast of continental Asia, and opposite to the sea of Japan and the gulf of Tartary and Corea, from which it is separated by Manchooria. It comprises five large, and a great number of small islands, lying between the 30th and 50th parallels of N. lat., and between the 128th and 151st degrees of E. long.; bounded N. by the sea of Okotsk and the independent part of the island or peninsula of Tarakai or Karafto; E. by the N. Pacific ocean; S. by the eastern sea of the Chinese; and W. by the sea of Japan, which communicates with the open ocean by the straits of La Perouse, Sangar, &c., running between the different islands. The shores of Japan are either so rocky or so extremely flat, and often so enveloped in heavy and dangerous fogs, that vessels can not approach near enough to make an accurate survey of the coasts. The population is estimated at about 50,000,000. The whole empire consists of 62 provinces. The city of Jeddo, in the province of Moo-sa-she, is the residence of the emperor Thin-Kaw, or "Heaven beneath," whose palace is surrounded by a strong wall, with a deep canal outside, full of water, and the arsenal attached built on a mound. The most remarkable mountain, Foo-g-san, is 10 miles high and the top capped with snow nine or ten months of the year. It is held sacred, and no females are allowed to ascend it. The lake Fakonee, S. W. of Yeddo, is likewise reverenced by the natives. The winter cold is much increased by the prevalence of N. and N. E. winds; and the summer heats of July and August are moderated by cooling breezes from the S. and S. E. Rain is frequent, falling more or less on two-thirds of all the days in the year, but more especially in June and July. Hurricanes and storms frequently occur, and sometimes violent earthquakes; one in 1705 destroying nearly half of Yeddo, and killing more than 100,000 of its inhabitants; and on Dec. 23, 1854, Simoda, one of the largest cities, was laid waste, and by the overflowing of the sea 220 souls perished, besides damaging the Russian frigate Diana. The metallic riches of Japan are stated to be very great. President Fillmore addressed a letter to the emperor, with a desire to open commercial intercourse in consequence of the increased trade between China and California; to have a harbor to procure coal and a shelter from the storms and winds on the coast which American vessels must necessarily encounter. America and

Japan being within twenty days sail of each other, it became necessary to endeavor to obtain a friendly communication with that empire. Commodore Perry was received with great courtesy, and there is hope that America and Japan will benefit by the results.

AFRICA.

Africa, a vast peninsula, one of the great divisions of the globe, situated to the S. of Europe, and to the W. and S.W. of Asia. It is separated from the former by the Mediterranean sea and the strait of Gibraltar; the two continents approaching at the latter within about 10 miles of each other. It is separated from Asia by the Red Sea, at whose southern extremity, the strait of Bab-el-mandeb, the shores of the two continents are only 16 miles apart. But at the most northerly extremity of the Red Sea, Asia and Africa are united by the Isthmus of Suez; the Mediterranean being thereabout 72 miles from the Red Sea. The most southerly point of Africa, Cape das Agulhas (Cape Needles), is in lat. 34° 52′ S.; North, Cape Blanco, opposite Sicily, in lat. 37° 21′ N.; East, Cape Gardafui, is in long. 51° 30 E.; and West is in long. 17° 33′ W. and 14° 43′ N. lat. Probable area 12,000,000 sq. miles. Population according to Balbi, 60,000,000; Malte-Brun, 70,000,000; and the Weimar Almanac, 100,000,000.

Africa forms a compact and undivided mass of land, being distinguished for its continuous unbroken lines, with few indentations of the sea, and no extensive peninsulas. The surface of the interior does not present that endless succession of changes met with in Europe, southern Asia, and both Americas, but on a greater scale and at greater distances; resembling rather the northern parts of Asia, exhibiting elevated table-lands and low plains, both of immense extent and of remarkable uniformity. South of the equator and north of it up to 10° lat. appears to constitute an extensive table-land, fringed in most parts by a comparatively narrow strip of low land along the sea. North of this table-land between 10° and 30° N. lat. extends an immense but low plain, the Great Desert or Desert of Sahara occupying a greater part. A comparatively narrow tract of mountainous country including Atlas and its dependencies separates the desert from the Mediterranean. On the E. the desert does not reach the Red Sea, being separated from it by the mountains of Abyssinia and the rocky countries extending thence northward along the Red Sea to the shores of the Mediterranean.

Climate, Rivers, &c.—The great extent of the rainless regions seems to be one of the principal causes of the high temperature of this continent. Nearly all the countries of Africa are hotter than those of Asia and America. The highest degree of heat is experienced in the Sahara and the countries bordering the Great Desert. In Soodan, in about 10° N. lat., and at no great distance from the Sahara, the temperature sometimes descends at night to the freezing point. The largest river is the Nile, which probably has a course of not less than 2,500 miles; the Quorra or Joliba, the Niger of the ancients, has a probable course of 2,000 miles, the Senegal 1,000, and the Gambia 700 miles. The largest lake is that of Tchad.

Races, &c.—There are about seven ascertainable varieties; viz. the Hottentot, Kaffer, Abyssinian, Egyptian, Numidian, Nubian, and Negro. Feticism in its most degrading and offensive form is the religion of the greater number of the inhabitants of Africa, but where this idolatry is not practised Mohammedism is the substitute. With the exception of Egypt and Abyssinia all the science and literature to be found are of Arabic origin. The Arabs, in the regions of the Nile, have schools in Cairo, Merow, and Darfour; in Barbary, Morocco, Fez, Algiers, Tunis, &c. There are schools among the Mandingoes, Foulahs, Jolofs, and other Mohammedan nations of central Negritia or Soudan.

Government, &c.—Despotism in its worst form is the prevailing government of Africa. Slavery and anarchy reign triumphant. Industry is at the lowest ebb. Except where they are associated with or have been instructed by Europeans or Arabs, the Africans have made little progress in the arts. All the more laborious occupations are devolved on females; and in some parts the wives of kings or petty princes are made to till the land for the support of their barbarian lords. Since the fall of Carthage no African people has had the smallest claim to be called maritime. In some places the natives fit out a sort of large cutter, not for trade or fishing, but for piracy.

EGYPT.

EGYPT, a country on both banks of the Nile occupying the N. E. angle of the African continent. One of the earliest seats of art, science, and literature, and famous alike for the historical events of which it has been the theater; its magnificent monuments, and physical character. The whole cultivable territory including its lateral

valleys has been estimated at about 16,000 square miles, or about half the area of Ireland. The probable population is 2,027,000. The climate is extremely hot, owing to the lowness of its elevation, and being surrounded, on all sides except the N., by vast tracts of burning sand, and of the scantiness of the rain; two seasons only being distinguishable—spring and summer, or rather the cool and the hot season. The latter continues from February or March to October; average hight, 90° Fahr. Remainder of the year 60° Fahr. During May or June Egypt is visited by the pestilential hot winds of the desert, called *Khamsin*, or *Simoom* of the Arabs, and the *Samiel* of the Turks. During the Simoom the streets are deserted, and are as silent during day as night. The rising of the Nile terminates these accesses of heat and drought, and again diffuses life and gladness over the land.

Government, &c.—Egypt is under Turkish sway, and the government consists of the pacha, whose power is unlimited and despotic. 2, His deputy called *Kikhy'a*. 3, Seven councils of state who have each a distinct department of the government to preside over. 4, Governors (*Nazir*) appointed to each province. The police, numerous and effective, consists of the military and the magistrates, or zabit police. The pacha has entire control over manufacture, agriculture, and trade in the country. Private property and freedom are but little known in Egypt. Every man is subject to conscription, and may at any time be torn from his home, and compelled to join the army or the fleet. The annual revenue is about £5,000,000 sterling. The number of troops in 1838, including veterans and invalids, amounted to 127,286, besides from 10,000 to 12,000 irregular Turkish troops, and the Bedouin Arabs, who could furnish 30,000 men. The navy at the same time numbered 11 ships, carrying 852 32-pounders; 11 frigates with 352 32-pounders; 4 corvettes, 102 32-pounders, short; 7 brigs, 134 32 pounders, carronades; and 3 steamers. The ships are beautifully modeled by native builders. The inhabitants of Egypt are subject to a variety of diseases; viz. ophthalmia, small-pox and leprosy, elephantiasis, syphilis, and malignant fevers. The plague occasionally breaks out with great violence in Egypt; in 1825 it destroyed 80,000 persons in Cairo only! No part of Egypt can be justly characterized as insalubrious. The diseases are mostly to be ascribed to their filth, miserable accommodations, and the bad quality and deficiency of their food, &c.